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A SUMMARY OF UNIVERSAL HISTORY, FROM *THE CREATION* TO THE PRESENT TIME.

IN LETTERS FROM A FATHER TO HIS SON.

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FOURTH ÆRA

OF

Univerſal Hiſtory,

Commencing with the Year 536, and ending 331, when Alexander overturned the Perſian Empire.

FIRST LETTER.

CYRUS having conquered Darius in the year 536, began his reign by a decree in favour of the Iſraelites. As the Prophet Jeremiah had foretold, this was exactly ſeventy

years from the time that Nebuchadnezzar firſt took Jeruſalem, and carried moſt of the principal Jews into captivity.

Zerubabel, a Jew of the royal blood, by virtue of the edict of Cyrus, aſſembled 42,360 of the Iſraelites. Theſe were made up from all the tribes except Dan; and having received thoſe veſſels of ſilver and gold, which had belonged to their temple, they proceeded to Judea. On their arrival, the Samaritans offered to aſſiſt them in rebuilding their city and temple, at the ſame time claiming a deſcent from Jacob. But the Jews denied all affinity, and abſolutely refuſed the aid which they offered. From whence, a rooted enmity took place, that continued to the lateſt period of their hiſtory.

During the reigns of Cyrus and Cambyſes, the Samaritans found means to throw inſuperable obſtacles in the way of the Jews; who were neither able to rebuild their city or temple. But when Darius Hyſtaſpes mounted the Perſian throne, he not only renewed

the decree of Cyrus, but he even taxed the Samaritans, for the purpoſe of reſtoring Jeruſalem. This edict was exactly ſeventy years, from the final deſtruction of that city in the year 588, and the prophecy of Jeremiah had thereby a double accompliſhment.

In the year 515, the Jewiſh temple was at length finiſhed and dedicated; though in a very humble ſtyle, when compared to that which had been raiſed by Solomon. Indeed it appears, that the moſt wealthy of the Iſraelites, preferred their ſettlements in the province of Babylon. But little progreſs was therefore made in reſtoring the grandeur of the nation. And Jeruſalem was not even ſurrounded by a wall, when Artaxerxes, or Ahaſuerus, mounted the Perſian throne.

His acceſſion happened in the year 464; and falling in love with a beautiful Jeweſs, whoſe name was Eſther, he made her his Queen. By her intereſt, ſhe raiſed her uncle Mordecai to be the prime miniſter of Artaxerxes: And Ezra, a Jewiſh Prieſt, took care

to profit by circumſtances ſo favourable to his nation. He obtained freſh powers and privileges for the Iſraelites, and gathering together a conſiderable body of thoſe who remained in the province of Babylon, he ſet out for Judea in the year 456 or 457.

Ezra had however more difficulties to encounter than he was aware of, and notwithſtanding his utmoſt efforts, Jeruſalem continued in a deſolate ſtate. When this was repreſented at the Perſian court, Nehemiah, a righteous Jew, who was cup-bearer to the King, undertook the cauſe of his country. And he got himſelf appointed to ſuperintend the reſtoration of the Jewiſh city and kingdom.

Before this, Ezra had collected the ſacred writings, and reſtored the Jewiſh polity and worſhip. But he had been able to do little or nothing as to their worldly grandeur. When Nehemiah arrived in the year 444, he therefore began, with ſurrounding the city with a ſtrong wall. At firſt the Samaritans

deſtroyed by night the work of the day. However, the prudence of Nehemiah overcame this and every other obſtacle. He finiſhed his wall, and then directing his attention to other improvements; both Jeruſalem, and its territories, began to put forth ſome ſigns of their former magnificence.

Sanballat, the governor of Samaria, about this time erected a temple on mount Gerizin, in imitation of that which was at Jeruſalem. He then appointed his ſon-in-law Manaſſeh to its High Prieſthood; by whom the Moſaic form of worſhip was adhered to, though the Samaritans ſtill continued to blend their own notions with the Iſraelitiſh ordinances. Manaſſeh was himſelf the ſon of Johanan, the High Prieſt of Jeruſalem. But his marriage with the daughter of Sanballat being contrary to law, he thus procured a ſettlement in Samaria.

After the departure of Nehemiah, both the civil and religious authority veſted in the High Prieſt. The prefect of Syria had, however,

a ſuperior juriſdiction, whenever he choſe to interfere. From this time nothing material happened to the Jews, till the reign of Artaxerxes Ochus, which began in the year 359. They then revolted, but were quickly ſubdued. And there was no other occurrence worth notice, till the times of Alexander the Great.

When that Prince beſieged the city of Tyre, he applied to the Jews for proviſions. They were abſolutely refuſed by Jadua, the High Prieſt, who had ſworn allegiance to the Perſian Monarch. This moſt highly irritated the Macedonian King; and Tyre had no ſooner fallen to him, than he turned his arms againſt Judea.

Jadua had no forces to oppoſe him; therefore dreſſing himſelf in his pontifical robes, and accompanied by the principal citizens of Jeruſalem, he went forth to implore the mercy of the Conqueror. But what muſt have been the ſurpriſe of both Jews and Greeks, when Alexander proſtrated himſelf at the feet of Jadua! He did not leave them

long to conjecture the cauſe of ſo ſtrange a proceeding: For he immediately declared, he had ſome time before, beheld in a viſion, juſt ſuch a man, who aſſured him, he ſhould ſubdue the Perſian Empire. In this he was ſtill further confirmed by the High Prieſt, who having conducted him into Jeruſalem, ſhewed him the prophecies of Daniel. There it was written, that the firſt great Horn, or King of Greece, ſhould deſtroy the Medo-Perſian Empire. And Alexander was ſo highly pleaſed, that he not only ſacrificed in the Jewiſh temple, but alſo confirmed all their rights and privileges.

During the ſiege of Tyre, the Samaritans had ſent him both forces and proviſions. They therefore applied for the ſame favour which had been ſhewn to the Jews, and with ſome difficulty obtained it. But a favourite officer belonging to Alexander being afterwards ſlain in a tumult at the city of Samaria, he revoked their privileges. He alſo deſtroyed the city—removed its inhabitants, and

planted a colony of Macedonians in their ſtead. The reſt of the Samaritans, thereupon, ſtrengthened and beautified the city of Shechem, which from thenceforth became their capital.

I ſhall now proceed to the Medo-Perſian Empire. Cyrus, its founder, ſubjected all the eaſtern countries, as far as the river Indus. On the north his arms extended to the Caſpian and Black Sea. The Egean and Mediterranean bounded him weſtward; whilſt on the ſouth, his juriſdiction reached to Ethiopia, and the Arabian gulph. No man before him poſſeſſed ſuch extenſive dominions: And he endeavoured to deſerve this ſuperiority, by making thoſe he governed happy.

The manner of his death is differently reported. It is however pretty certain, his reign did not continue more than ſeven years. And according to all hiſtorians, his juſtice, wiſdom, and valour, well entitled him to the appellation of Great, by which he has been recorded to poſterity.

Cambyſes, his ſon and ſucceſſor, was not long on the throne, when Amaſis, King of Egypt, ſhook off the yoke. But before the Perſian Monarch reached Egypt, he was dead; and Pſammenitus, who next poſſeſſed the crown, likewiſe refuſed the uſual tribute. A battle was the conſequence, which proving deciſive in favour of Cambyſes, Pſammenitus, with his nobles, retired to the city of Memphis. Its walls however afforded a very ſhort reſpite; for it was ſoon after beſieged and taken by Cambyſes.

Before Memphis was inveſted, a herald ſent by the Perſian Monarch, with the ſailors that accompanied him, had been put to death by the Egyptians of that city. For this, Cambyſes reſolved on a dreadful revenge. Pſammenitus and his nobles were gathered together, and the firſt thing they ſaw, was their daughters habited like ſlaves, and carrying pitchers of water. The next proceſſion, was their ſons leading to execution, with bits in their mouths, and halters round their necks.

And to cloſe the cruel ſcene, the Egyptian King was, in a ſhort time after, forced to end his exiſtence by a draught of bullock's blood.

Nor was the reſentment of the cruel Cambyſes confined to the living. The body of Amaſis was taken from its ſepulchre, and having mangled it with his ſword, he cauſed it to be reduced to aſhes. He alſo ſlew the Bull Apis, at the ſame time ſcourging his Prieſts. And by every poſſible means, he oppreſſed and inſulted the vanquiſhed Egyptians.

Ethiopia had, at this period, a Monarch of its own. To him Cambyſes ſent, requiring ſubmiſſion; but beſides refuſing to comply, that Prince added a moſt inſulting defiance. He ſent the Perſian King a great bow, deſiring him not to think of entering Ethiopia till he found forces who could make uſe of ſuch arms. This was attempted in vain, by all but Smerdis, the King's brother. This ſtrength, however, coſt him his life: For the infamous

Cambyſes, jealous of ſuch a ſuperiority, cauſed him to be put to death.

Raging with paſſion, Cambyſes now reſolved to attack Ethiopia. But in the attempt he loſt ſo many men, by fatigue and climate, as compelled him to abandon that undertaking. Irritated by this diſappointment, his ſavage diſpoſition knew no bounds. His nobles, his attendants, and even his favourites, fell victims to his caprice. One inſtance was ſo uncommonly horrid, that I ſhall particularize it. Having aſked Prexaſpes what his people ſaid of him, the favourite unfortunely anſwered, that though they highly approved of him, they thought it would be better if he was more abſtemious. Cambyſes concealed his diſpleaſure till after dinner, when having drank freely, he cauſed the ſon of Prexaſpes, who was his cup-bearer, to ſtand in a corner of the room. He then took a bow and arrow, with which he ſhot him through the heart. At the ſame time demanding of the father, who was preſent, if

wine had affected his hand. When, fearful of a ſimilar fate, Prexaſpes replied, that he ſhot like a god.

Before he left Egypt, he deſtroyed its idols and temples. Having alſo plundered that country of all the riches he could find, he ſet out on his return to Perſia: but when he reached Syria, he received the unwelcome news, of a uſurper being placed upon his throne. During his abſence, he had left the government to Patizithes, one of the Magi. This man, having a brother extremely like Smerdis, paſſed him for that Prince. For finding how obnoxious Cambyſes had become, it was given out that the King's brother had eſcaped the death that was ordered him; on which the fictitious Smerdis was gladly received, and acknowledged by the Perſians. Fearful of the effect this ſtory might have upon the troops, Prexaſpes was now ordered to declare publicly, that he had put the real Smerdis to death. But Cambyſes's hour was come, for in mounting his horſe, he, by ſome

means, received a wound from his own ſword, of which he in a ſhort time expired.

The ſuppoſed Smerdis did not long preſerve his uſurped power. Seven noblemen of Perſia having found out the cheat, forced their way into the palace, and put both him and his brother to death. The people were at the ſame time convinced of this impoſture; and extending their reſentment to all the Magi, a very general maſſacre of that order took place. This great Empire being now without a head, theſe noblemen, who had brought about this revolution, fixed on a plan for diſpoſing of the vacant crown. They agreed to meet on horſeback, at an appointed place, and the ſceptre was to belong to the owner of that horſe which firſt neighed. This proved to be Darius, the ſon of Hyſtaſpes. But he owed his exaltation to a ſtratagem, for the evening before, his groom had brought a mare to his horſe on that ſpot; and he immediately, on returning to it, neighed for his companion.

Hyſtaſpes, the father of Darius, had travelled into India, converſing with the Gymnoſophiſts and Brachmans of that country, who were highly celebrated for their wiſdom. Zoroaſter, another Perſian, had alſo viſited Chaldæa, and other kingdoms, in the purſuit of knowledge. Theſe two united in reforming the religion of their country. The almoſt univerſal deſtruction of the Magi, rendered their plan extremely practicable. And in lieu of worſhipping deified kings, and other idols, rites were now inſtituted that were ſcarcely, if at all, idolatrous. Some authors alledge, an earlier Zoroaſter; but he who was cotemporary with Darius Hyſtaſpes, is undoubtedly the Philoſopher to whom the Perſians were ſo much indebted.

In the beginning of Darius's reign Babylon revolted. It was ſoon ſubdued; and the Scythians having made ſeveral inroads into the Empire, Darius reſolved, in his turn, to attack their dominions. They were not able to meet him in a pitched battle; but they had

the means of effectually baffling all his exertions. Having no fixed habitations, they every where retired before him; and his army was gradually diminiſhed, by the fatigues and inhoſpitable climes which he encountered. He penetrated into the countries beyond the Danube; till at length, perceiving the impracticability of conquering theſe itinerants, he retreated by the way of Thrace. In that kingdom he formed a ſettlement, which he left Megabyzus, one of his Generals, to command. And Megabyzus, ſoon after, obliged Amyntas, King of Macedon, to become tributary to Perſia.

It is ſaid, that Darius now turned his arms againſt India, obliging ſeveral of its Princes to acknowledge his ſuperiority. Towards the cloſe of his reign, he was, however, obliged to exert himſelf in another quarter; for a general revolt took place amongſt the Grecian cities of Aſia-Minor.

Hippias, the tyrant of Athens, had been expelled, and flying into Aſia-Minor, he was

received and protected by Artaphernes, the brother of Darius, and governor of that province. Inſtead of delivering him up, when demanded by the Athenians, Artaphernes declared, he would oblige them to receive him as their Sovereign. Athens therefore commenced hoſtilities; and on ſending a powerful fleet to Aſia-Minor, all the Greeks in that quarter threw off the yoke which Cyrus had impoſed.

Artaphernes was by no means prepared for ſuch an attack. He therefore ſhut himſelf up in the citadel of Sardis, whilſt not only that city, but every other part of his government, was abandoned to the enemy. But Artaphernes was ſoon reinforced, and, in his turn, he proved ſucceſsful. At length, the Athenians were obliged to relinquiſh Aſia-Minor; and in a ſhort time all the Greek cities of that province were again ſubjected to the Perſians.

Darius was ſo incenſed at this late revolt, that he commanded a ſervant every morning to bid him remember the Athenians. Hav-

ing raiſed a powerful armament, he ordered his ſon in law Mardonius to carry the war into Attica. For this purpoſe he was firſt to paſs into Thrace; but in the attempt a great part of his fleet was deſtroyed by a dreadful ſtorm. And not being able to do any thing effectual with the forces that eſcaped, Mardonius repaſſed into Aſia Minor.

This diſappointment only ſerved to ſtimulate the reſentment of Darius. A much greater force was ſoon equipped, and Artaphernes and Datis were ordered to replace Hippias in the tyranny of Athens. In their way thither they took and plundered the iſlands of Naxus and Eubœa. And having diſembarked their troops on the continent, they took poſt in the plains of Marathon. This was very near Athens, which was now required to ſubmit to the Perſian arms.

The Athenians had only 10,000 men to oppoſe ten times that number. But far from being intimidated, they reſolved to engage the enemy. And by the conduct and cou-

rage of Miltiades their leader, victory declared for Athens. In this battle Hippias and multitudes of the Perſians periſhed. The reſt fled to their ſhips, ſeven of which were taken, and many more deſtroyed. Thus ended an expedition, in which the Perſians were ſo confident of ſucceſs, that they brought chains to bind their priſoners, and marble to record their victories.

On the news of this ſignal defeat Darius reſolved to conduct the war in perſon. He therefore iſſued orders through all his wide extended empire for the moſt prodigious preparations. But death arreſted his purpoſe; and he expired in the year 485, after a reign of 36 years.

Xerxes, his ſon and ſucceſſor, inherited his father's reſentment againſt Athens. The revolt of Egypt, however, for a little diverted the invaſion of Greece. On its being again ſubjected, all his forces were ordered to aſſemble at Sardis. A bridge of boats was then directed to be thrown over the narrow ſea

from Seſtos to Abydus. And as Mardonius's fleet had been moſtly loſt by doubling the cape, occaſioned by Mount Athos, Xerxes now determined to cut a paſſage for his ſhips through that promontory. This he is ſaid to have effected, but his bridge of boats, when almoſt compleated, was deſtroyed by a ſtorm.

Xerxes had ſuch abſurd notions of his power, that he wrote a letter to Mount Athos, before his workmen began, to open a paſſage through it. In this, he threatened to throw it altogether into the ocean, if it did not ſubmit to what he had directed. In the ſame ſtrain he now ordered the ſea to receive 300 ſtripes, and fetters to be thrown into it. To this folly he added cruelty, putting the unfortunate men, who had been employed at his bridge to death. And then two new bridges were began, the one for his foot, and the other for his horſes and carriages. This great undertaking being at length accompliſhed, all his forces encamped on the plains of Abydus,

whilſt his fleet appeared upon the neighbouring ſeas.

Authors differ as to the number led by Xerxes into Europe. Reckoning all the followers of the camp, and thoſe on board the navy; it is however ſuppoſed that upwards of four millions were employed in this expedition. When Xerxes, from an high tower, contemplated this vaſt diſplay of his own greatneſs, his firſt emotions were thoſe of exceſſive joy. Yet when he reflected that in a few years neither himſelf, nor one of all he beheld, would be in exiſtence, he diſſolved into tears. Happy would it have been for Greece and Aſia had he attended to theſe latter feelings. But vain glory ſoon predominated, and orders were iſſued to paſs the Helleſpont.

Thrace, Theſſaly, and Macedon quickly acknowledged the power of Xerxes, and increaſed his forces. Beſides the provocation given to Darius, the Athenians had alſo put to death an herald from Xerxes. They had therefore nothing to hope from clemency.

But their courage was well ſuited to their ſituation. And having obtained what aid they could, inſtead of deſpairing, they boldly entered on this unequal conteſt.

Xerxes could not poſſibly reach Athens without paſſing the Streights of Thermopylæ. They were formed by two mountains, and ſo narrow that a few men only could enter them abreaſt. Leonidas, one of the Spartan kings, with 300 of his countrymen, and as many more Greeks, as made his detachment 4000, here took poſt. Seven thouſand more remained in the vicinity of Athens under the command of Themiſtocles. And theſe were all the forces that were to contend with the millions led by Xerxes.

Great as his numbers were the Perſian monarch did not like the ſituation of Leonidas. He therefore ſolicited him to ſurrender, at the ſame time offering to make him tributary king of Greece. The brave and generous Spartan rejected every overture, and threats were then uſed inſtead of negociation.

Xerxes ordered him to ſend his arms on pain of deſtruction: To which Leonidas only replied that he might come and take them. Irritated by this Laconic defiance, the van of the Perſian army was ordered to bring the Spartan monarch in chains. They were however repulſed with great ſlaughter; and the immortal Perſian band of 10,000, ſo called from its numbers being kept compleat, next advanced. After the loſs of moſt of its men, the remainder retreated; and various other bodies were equally unſucceſsful. So that for a few days it ſeemed that Leonidas and his detachment would have counteracted all theſe vaſt preparations.

In this ſituation a perfidious Greek bargained with Xerxes for the ruin of his country. There was a ſecret path over one of the mountains, by which a body of forces might get round upon Leonidas. This being diſcloſed to the Perſians, they inſtantly took advantage of it; and Leonidas no ſooner perceived that they had, than he knew his poſt

was no longer tenable. He therefore ſent all but his Spartans back to Themiſtocles; and according to the general cuſtom of his country, he reſolved to periſh rather than to fly. In this he was further confirmed by an oracle which had declared, that Greece ſhould eſcape provided a Spartan king was ſlain in the conteſt.

Small as were the Spartan numbers they did not periſh unrevenged; and only one of the 300 ſurvived the conflict. In all the different attacks on Thermopylæ, not leſs than 20,000 fell on the part of Perſia, amongſt whom were two of the King's brothers. And Xerxes, in revenge for theſe loſſes, cut off the head, and expoſed the body of the Spartan king upon a croſs. But poſterity hath done juſtice to both. Xerxes being the ſubject of ſcorn and deteſtation, whilſt the brave and virtuous Leonidas continues through all ages the object of applauſe and admiration.

During the delay at Thermopylæ the Perſian fleet ſuffered conſiderably by a ſtorm.

Taking advantage of this the Grecian navy had ventured an engagement on the very day that the Streights were gained by Xerxes. And notwithſtanding their great inferiority the Greeks had made it a drawn battle. Themiſtocles therefore determined to hazard all upon the ocean: In which reſolution he was confirmed by an oracle that had predicted, that Athens ſhould be ſaved by her wooden walls. Athens being now abandoned it was taken by the Perſians, and levelled with the ground. Xerxes then diſpatched a body of troops to plunder the temple at Delphos. In it they found vaſt riches: And he was preparing to extend his conqueſt over the reſt of Greece, when the defeat of his fleet gave a very different complexion to his affairs.

The combined navy of Greece amounted to no more than 380 ſail, whilſt that of Perſia was upwards of 2000. With ſuch an inequality the Greeks wiſely took poſt in the narrow ſea between Salamis and the continent; thereby preventing the enemy from

bringing all their force at once into action. Xerxes was now inſidiouſly informed that the Greek ſhips meditated a retreat, to prevent which he gave orders for an immediate attack. This ended in the overthrow of the Perſian fleet; nor would any of it have eſcaped, but for the courage and conduct of a woman. Artemiſia, queen of Halycarnaſſus in Aſia Minor, a tributary to Xerxes, had furniſhed five ſhips which ſhe commanded in perſon; and when the Perſians began to fly this gallant princeſs covered their rear. This afforded them an opportunity of retiring; and by her brave exertions ſhe likewiſe ſecured her own retreat.

Such of the Perſian ſhips as eſcaped were ſo entirely diſperſed, as to leave their antagoniſts the decided maſters of the ocean. This effectually blaſted the ambitious hopes of Xerxes; for all Greece could not long have afforded ſuſtenance to his forces. He therefore reſolved to leave Mardonius with 300,000 men to carry on the war, and all the reſt of the troops ſet out for the bridges in

order to repaſs into Aſia. Xerxes, with only a few followers, went before them, but to add to his diſappointments, he found that the winds and waves had deſtroyed his bridges. He was therefore forced to croſs the Helleſpont in a ſmall boat, and to ſend as many ſhips as the neighbouring coaſts would furniſh, to reconvey his army: But the greateſt part of it periſhed from want and fatigue, and a few thouſands only returned to Aſia-Minor.

Mardonius wintered in the tributary kingdoms of Theſſaly and Macedon, whilſt the different ſtates of Greece were buſy in preparing for the enſuing campaign. Their forces were to rendezvous at Corinth, under the command of Pauſanias, the brother of the great Leonidas; who acted as one of the Spartan Kings, during the minority of his nephew Pliſtarchus. Mardonius however was firſt in the field, and Athens again fell into the hands of the Perſians, its forces being at Corinth under the command of Ariſtides. But the triumph of Mardonius was of ſhort

duration. He was defeated in an action that took place at Platæa; and his camp, to which he had retired, was then taken by ſtorm, and he himſelf was amongſt the ſlain. In it the victors found conſiderable riches, and of all the forces left by Xerxes, under the command of Mardonius, 40,000 only eſcaped from the battle of Platæa. Theſe, inſtead of taking ſhelter in the camp, immediately ſet out for the Helleſpont. And they were ſo fortunate, as to make good their paſſage over the narrow ſea, which ſeparates Europe from Aſia.

Leotychides, the other Spartan King, commanded the Grecian fleet, with which he had gone in purſuit of the Perſian navy, it having re-aſſembled. They however fled before him, and at length took ſhelter in the port of Mycale, in Aſia-Minor. Here the remains of Xerxes's army had alſo taken poſt, and the ſailors drawing their ſhips on ſhore, added to the encampment. But Leotychides diſembarked his forces likewiſe, and ſucceſs attended his arms. Many of the Perſians

were ſlain on this occaſion, and the remainder fled with precipitation. Both the fleet and camp then fell into the hands of the Grecians. And this event is ſaid to have taken place on the very day that Mardonius loſt the battle of Platæa.

Xerxes, who had hitherto continued at Sardis, now abandoned every idea of conquering Greece. Incapable of noble ſentiments, he however let looſe his reſentment againſt the Greeks of Aſia-Minor. All their temples were conſumed by his orders, except that of Diana at Epheſus. In return, thoſe cities ſoon after revolted, as did alſo Cyprus, and ſeveral other iſlands. Xanthippus, the Athenian Admiral, likewiſe took thoſe places in Thrace, which had belonged to the Perſians. And Xerxes, heartily tired of war, ſuffered theſe diſmemberments of his Empire with little or no oppoſition.

After the battle of Mycale, Xerxes returned to Suſa in Perſia, where he gave himſelf up to the moſt infamous debaucheries: And

the gratification of his luſts were, in ſome inſtances, attended with the moſt horrid acts of cruelty. At length, Artabanus, one of his principal officers, formed a conſpiracy againſt him, and put him to death in the 21ſt year of his reign. His eldeſt ſon, Darius, was at the ſame time diſpatched. And the ſecond, named Hyſtaſpes, being abſent at his government of Bactria, Artaxerxes, who was the third, took poſſeſſion of the ſceptre.

All power was however in Artabanus; and having ſeven ſons, he gave them the moſt important appointments in the ſtate. It is ſuppoſed he aimed at the ſovereignty, and that a plot was actually formed againſt Artaxerxes. But that Monarch was beforehand with him, for he cauſed Artabanus to be put to death. His ſons, who then flew to arms, periſhed in the attempt: and Hyſtaſpes being alſo defeated, Artaxerxes was from thenceforth firmly ſeated on the throne. It was this King who married Eſther, the beautiful Jeweſs, and who, on her account, was ſo friendly to that nation.

About the fifth year of his reign, the Egyptians threw off the yoke, electing Inarus, a Prince of Lybia, for their King. The Athenians, glad of an opportunity to retaliate on the Perſians, ſent a fleet of 200 ſail, with a conſiderable body of forces, to the aid of Inarus. They were oppoſed by a Perſian navy, but the latter being beaten, the Greeks were landed in Egypt, under the command of Charytimis, their General: And at the ſame time Cimon, the ſon of Miltiades, was alſo harraſſing the Perſians in a different quarter.

In Egypt the Perſians were no longer able to keep the field, and Achæmenides, the brother of Artaxerxes, being ſlain, the remnant of his troops ſhut themſelves up in the city of Memphis. In order to force the Athenians to quit the ſervice of Inarus, the Perſian Monarch planned a freſh attack upon Athens. And as Themiſtocles was then in his court, having before been baniſhed from his native city, he applied to him to conduct this enterprize. Themiſtocles had received

the moſt generous treatment from the King, having a ſupport more ſuited to a Prince than to an exile: But though the higheſt gratitude poſſeſſed his heart, he could not forget that Athens was his country. In this dreadful ſituation, he reſolved on as dreadful an expedient. For after entertaining his friends in the moſt ſplendid manner, and with ſo much chearfulneſs as not to betray his deſign, he put an end to his life. And though ſuicide can in no inſtance be juſtified, I know not one in which it appears to have been committed from more laudable motives.

Artaxerxes had expected ſucceſs againſt Athens, ſolely from a reliance on the ſkill of Themiſtocles. On his death, he therefore abandoned the deſign, and inſtead of it, Megabyzus, the governor of Syria, was ordered into Egypt, at the head of 300,000 men. To co-operate with him, Artabazus ſailed from Cilicia with a conſiderable naval equipment; and entering the Nile, their united forces were truly formidable. Memphis was relieved, having ſtood out during three years;

and Inarus was in his turn beſieged in Byblus, a city on one of the iſlands in the mouth of the Nile. He was at length forced to ſurrender; and fifty ſail of Athenian ſhips, not knowing of this change, ſoon after fell into the hands of the Perſians.

Amyrteus, a General of Inarus, had yet a body of forces under his command. They were however obliged to retreat into the marſhy country near Ethiopia, and Egypt was again reduced to ſubjection. Artabazus, on his return, alſo conquered a conſiderable part of the iſland of Cyprus. But notwithſtanding theſe advantages, the victories of Cimon, both by ſea and on the coaſts of Aſia, were ſo deciſive, that Artaxerxes longed for peace, and it was concluded, on the following humiliating terms:—That all the Greek cities of Aſia-Minor ſhould be free, and governed by their own laws. That no Perſian ſhips ſhould navigate between the Euxine ſea and the coaſt of Pamphylia. That no Perſian army ſhould come within three days march of thoſe ſeas. And that the Athe-

nians, on their part, ſhould not commit any hoſtilities on the territories or ſubjects of Perſia.

Artaxerxes was ſucceeded in the year 425 by Xerxes, his only legitimate ſon. He reigned only two months, being cut off by Sogdianus, his baſtard brother. This wretch alſo diſpatched ſuch of the principal men as he ſuppoſed inimical to his uſurpation: But theſe bloody meaſures, inſtead of ſecuring him, paved the way for his deſtruction. The Perſians readily repaired to the ſtandard of Nothus, another illegitimate ſon of Artaxerxes; and Sogdianus being put to death, after a reign of only ſeven months, Nothus poſſeſſed himſelf of the Perſian ſceptre.

Darius Nothus, which is the name by which this Monarch is recorded, was for ſome time diſturbed in the enjoyment of his crown. He had ſeveral engagements with Arſites, another illegitimate brother: And this competitor was ſcarcely defeated and ſlain, when Piſuthes, the governor of Lydia, ſet up for independence. His revolt was not

of long duration, being ſoon after put to death by Tiſſaphernes, one of Darius's Generals. But in Egypt, the Perſians were driven out by Amyrteus, who now aſſumed the regal dignity. He alſo entered into a league with the Arabs, and was about to invade Phœnicia. Darius however averted that diſaſter, though he was not able to reconquer Egypt. And except in theſe inſtances, his reign was paſſed in peace and tranquility.

The Perſians were not moleſted by the Greeks for the nineteen years which Darius reigned. This was owing to the policy of Tiſſaphernes, the governor of Lydia. He diſtributed Perſian gold, with ſo much judgment amongſt the leading men of Greece, as to keep them in perpetual broils amongſt themſelves; at the ſame time preſerving a perfect neutrality as to arms. But Darius had removed Tiſſaphernes ſome years before his death, giving the government of Aſia-Minor to his ſon Cyrus. And Cyrus having openly declared for the Lacedæmonians, laid

the foundation of new conteſts between the Greeks and Perſians.

In the year 405, Artaxerxes Mnemon aſcended the throne of his father Darius. At his coronation, he narrowly eſcaped being cut off by his brother Cyrus; yet, he not only forgave this black attempt, but likewiſe allowed him to retain his government. Notwithſtanding Cyrus had pretended the deepeſt contrition, this confidence was weak in Artaxerxes, and in a ſhort time he was to feel that it was ſo. For this hypocrite, having under one pretence or other, aſſembled a conſiderable army, and being alſo joined by a large body of Lacedæmonians, he openly laid claim to the crown of Perſia.

Awaked from his deluſion, Artaxerxes alſo levied a powerful army, with which he marched to oppoſe his brother. They met on the plains of Cunaxa, in the province of Babylon; and though the forces of Artaxerxes were by far the moſt numerous, yet the ſuperior diſcipline of the Greeks, in the ſervice of Cyrus, ſeemed to more than counterba-

lance it. The diſpute was long and obſtinate, till at length the two brothers engaged each other. In this combat Artaxerxes received two wounds, and was on the point of receiving a finiſhing blow, when Cyrus fell by a diſcharge of arrows. This decided the battle in that part of the field where he had commanded: But the Greeks were compleatly victorious in another quarter; and at the cloſe of the day they remained maſters of the field. Being ignorant of the fate of Cyrus, they paſſed the night in anticipating the rewards that had been promiſed them; but with the light their golden viſion was to vaniſh.

The ſituation of theſe Greeks, who were little more than 10,000 in number, was truly deplorable. Cyrus dead, and his army diſbanded. Themſelves ſurrounded by enemies, and a march of 2000 miles before them ere they could embark for Greece. Their courage was, however, equal to their danger; and, inſtead of ſurrendering, or negotiating, they inſtantly reſolved on a retreat. In the beginning of it, they loſt Clearchus their leader;

but Xenophon, the celebrated hiſtorian, more than ſupplied his place. Under his conduct, they ſurmounted every difficulty; and he reconducted moſt of them to their native country. This is juſtly conſidered as one of the greateſt actions of antiquity; the retreat of theſe 10,000 Grecians, being equalled with the moſt celebrated victories.

This ſucceſs of Artaxerxes was clouded by the ſevereſt domeſtic misfortune. Statira, his beautiful and beloved Queen, was ſnatched from him by poiſon, and it was diſcovered to have been adminiſtered by his own mother. He for ſome time confined her, but was at length reconciled to her; and ſhe exerciſed many cruelties towards thoſe who had been inſtrumental to the death of her unworthy, yet beloved ſon, Cyrus. It was, however, weakneſs in Artaxerxes to allow her the ſmalleſt degree of power; and though filial duty may palliate, it can by no means excuſe this conduct in the Perſian Monarch.

In order to puniſh the Greek cities of Aſia-Minor for having joined Cyrus, Tiſſa-

phernes was ordered againſt them. On their part they ſolicited, and obtained aid from Sparta: and in the firſt campaign ſeveral advantages were gained over the Perſians.

Conon the Athenian, celebrated for his naval ſkill, had been baniſhed his country, and to him was committed the conduct of the Perſian fleet. Great exertions were alſo made to render their forces formidable by land. On the other hand, the Greek cities were equally buſy; and Ageſilaus, one of the Spartan Kings, arriving with a freſh body of his countrymen, took the command of the united Greeks. His ſucceſs was equal to his expectations, for he over-run and plundered the whole province of Lydia. On this, and ſome accuſations from Conon, that his fleet had not been properly ſupplied, Tiſſaphernes was put to death, and the command in that quarter was given to Tithrauſtes.

Inſtead of active war, Tithrauſtes was merely on the defenſive; whilſt he took a very effectual means of regaining Aſia-Minor. His emiſſaries were diſpatched into Greece, with

plenty of Perſian gold, which was applied with ſo much judgment, that a very great combination took place againſt the Lacedæmonians. As he had foreſeen, the Spartans were thus obliged to abandon their Aſiatic allies. And when Ageſilaus received his orders to return, he exclaimed, that he was beat by 30,000 archers: This being the name of a gold coin in uſe amongſt the Perſians.

When Ageſilaus ſet out for his own country, he entruſted the fleet, which was left behind, to the command of his brother. Conon ſoon after brought him to action, in which moſt of the Spartan ſhips were taken or deſtroyed. And the conſequence was that all the Grecian Aſiatic ſtates were once more ſubjected to the Perſian empire.

Conon was now in high eſtimation at the court of Artaxerxes. Athens had been very lately taken, and diſmantled by the Spartans, as I ſhall elſewhere relate: And this generous, though baniſhed Athenian, undertook the cauſe of his country. The Spartans were particularly obnoxious to Artaxerxes; and

beſides it was better for the Perſians to divide Greece, by reinſtating the rival of the Lacedæmonians. This was the reaſoning uſed by Conon, and being really juſt, he was furniſhed with the means of executing his purpoſe.

Whilſt Conon was thus employed a peace was made between the Perſians and Lacedæmonians. One article of the treaty declared, that the contracting parties would guarantee the liberty and independence of every city in Greece; which was very politic in the Perſians, as it was likely to prevent any powerful ſtate being formed that might prove dangerous to their empire. But this peace gave Artaxerxes real as well as ſpeculative advantages. For the iſlands of Clazomenæ and Cyprus, together with all the Greek ſtates in Aſia, were confirmed to the Perſian monarch.

From theſe ſucceſſes Artaxerxes was induced to attempt the reduction of Egypt. In this he did not however ſucceed, and the cloſe of his reign was entirely employed in domeſtic diſſentions.

He had three legitimate ſons, Darius, Ariaſpes, and Ochus. Being at enmity with each other, they were already preparing to diſpute the crown ſo ſoon as their aged father ſhould be no more. To avert ſo great a misfortune Artaxerxes therefore aſſociated Darius in the government. But this ungrateful and unnatural ſon, eager to poſſeſs the undivided power, plotted againſt the life of his parent. He was however diſcovered and put to death, together with ſome of his illegitimate brethren, who had joined in the conſpiracy. Ariaſpes and Ochus then began their ſchemes a-new; and a third competitor appeared in the perſon of Arſannes, an illegitimate, but at the ſame time a favourite child of Artaxerxes. On which Ochus, who ſtopped at nothing, diſpatched them both, and his unhappy father did not long ſurvive ſuch complicated misfortunes.

Artaxerxes Ochus, for ſo he ſtiled himſelf, having thus gained the throne in the year 359, began with extirpating all he could find of the blood royal. Moſt of the principal

Perſians likewiſe fell by his orders; as he by this means ſuppoſed to eſtabliſh that power he had ſo infamouſly obtained. Lydia and Phœnicia revolted from this dreadful tyrant; but having ſubdued the firſt he marched againſt the latter. Tennes, at this time king of Sidon, thereupon ſtrengthened himſelf by an alliance with Nectanebus king of Egypt; from whom he received 4,000 Greek mercenaries under the command of Mentor. But Ochus no ſooner appeared in Phœnicia, than this Greek hireling entered into a ſecret treaty with him. To this Tennes was alſo brought to accede, betraying his ſubjects into the power of Ochus. The moſt cruel barbarities were then inflicted on the chief inhabitants. And the reſt of the Sidonians, rather than truſt themſelves to ſuch a monſter, ſet fire to their city, and periſhed in the flames.

With the fall of Sidon all oppoſition from the Phœnicians ended. Tennes, being no longer uſeful, then received a death from Ochus that he well merited, though not from

the hands of the Perſian monarch. As for Mentor and the Greeks they were loaded with favors. And having ſubdued a revolt in Cyprus, and confirmed his yoke over Judea, Ochus directed his arms againſt Egypt.

Nectanebus was unable to withſtand him; and abandoning his country he found ſhelter in Ethiopia. The reſentment of Ochus was unbounded. He deſtroyed their temples, inſulted their religion, ſlew one of the ſacred bulls with his own hand, and exerciſed the moſt dreadful barbarities. He then plundered Egypt of all its riches; and having appointed a governor, with a ſufficient force to hold it in ſubjection, he returned to Perſia.

Peace being now eſtabliſhed throughout his vaſt empire, he reſigned himſelf to the moſt exceſſive debaucheries. All affairs of ſtate were left to Bagoas his favourite eunuch. But from him he was to receive his earthly puniſhment. This miniſter was by birth an Egyptian, and though he had concealed his reſentment at the treatment of his country,

he meditated a certain revenge, which he effected by poiſon in the year 338.

Bagoas, on the death of the king, raiſed Arogus, one of Ochus's ſons to the throne; at the ſame time deſtroying all the reſt of his late maſter's poſterity. His object at this time was power, through the medium of a weak king, who would quietly ſubmit to his direction. This he thought to have found in Arogus; but finding he was miſtaken he removed him alſo by poiſon. And in the year 336 Darius Codomanus, a deſcendant from Darius Nothus, was by his means raiſed to the vacant crown.

But Darius as little anſwered his expectations as Arogus. A poiſoned cup was therefore prepared for him. This was no more than the new monarch expected. And by his precautions the deſign of Bagoas was detected before the draught was adminiſtered. On which the infamous eunuch was compelled to drink his own infuſion, and immediately expired.

It was very ſoon after this that Alexander

the Great ſucceeded his father Philip. And all that is neceſſary in this place as to Greece and Macedon is, that Alexander was appointed generaliſſimo of the Greek forces, whoſe object was the reduction of the Perſian empire.

In the year 334 Alexander croſſed the Helleſpont; his whole force conſiſting of no more than 30,000 foot and 5,000 horſe. The firſt place that Darius's generals made a ſtand was on the banks of the Granicus. This river was boldly paſſed by Alexander in the very face of the enemy, when a long and bloody conteſt enſued. In it the Macedonian king was wounded, and would have loſt his life had not Clytus, one of his principal captains, come to his relief. But victory at length declared for the Greeks and Macedonians.

Though the Perſians loſt 20,000 men in this action, not more than 200 periſhed on the part of Alexander; from whence we may judge how greatly their diſcipline excelled that of the Aſiatics. Twenty-five of Alex-

ander's life guards being amongſt the ſlain, he cauſed ſtatues of braſs to be erected to their memory. He alſo ſent over orders that all taxes ſhould be remitted to the wives and children of thoſe Macedonians who had fallen: And theſe acts greatly endeared him to his army. Nor was he leſs attentive to procure a good name amongſt the Aſiatics; for except to the Greek mercenaries, he behaved with infinite kindneſs to all his priſoners. Thoſe Greeks who had fought againſt him he ſent in chains to their reſpective ſtates. And as Sparta alone had withheld her quota of men, he dedicated 300 of the richeſt Perſian coats of armour to the temple of Minerva at Athens, with this inſcription:—That Alexander and all the Grecians, except the Spartans, had taken thoſe ſpoils from the barbarians of Aſia.

The battle of Granicus decided the fate of Aſia-Minor: And having got ſo firm a footing in the Perſian empire, he ſent back his fleet, thereby cutting off all hopes but thoſe of conqueſt. To the Greek cities which fell

to him, with the reſt of this province, he granted their own laws on their paying the ſame quotas that the Perſians had exacted. But the city of Epheſus was quite exempted, ae they were now beginning to rebuild the temple of Diana. It had been burned down the very night that Alexander was born by one Eroſtratus, who ſet it on fire for the ſtrange purpoſe of having his name commemorated. This new temple, which was built by general ſubſcription, and ornamented by ſeveral princes, at length however exceeded the old one, and was reckoned one of the ſeven wonders of the world.

Alexander having wintered in Aſia Minor, aſſembled his forces at the city of Gordium. There he was ſhewn the knot tied by Gordius, and was at the ſame time told that univerſal empire was to belong to him that ſhould undo it. This Alexander attempted in vain; but drawing his ſword he cut it in two, declaring he had in this way brought himſelf within the prediction.

This campaign opened with the reduction

of Cilicia; and he very near loſt his life by bathing whilſt warm in its river Cydnus. All his phyſicians had given him over except one; and a letter was put into the hands of Alexander when on the point of drinking a mixture he had ordered. This letter was to inform him that the phyſician, who had undertaken his cure, was bribed to poiſon him. But it had ſo little effect on Alexander, that putting the letter into the poſſeſſion of the phyſician, he took off the medicine whilſt the doctor was peruſing it. And his confidence ſoon appeared to be well placed by an almoſt immediate recovery.

Darius had made vaſt preparations for the defence of his crown. He however knew nothing of war, and inſtead of waiting in an open country, where all his forces could have acted, he entered the hilly parts in or adjoining to Cilicia. This being juſt what Alexander wiſhed, he immediately brought on the battle of Iſſus. A decided victory was the conſequence. And though Darius ſaved himſelf by flight his camp was taken, together

with his mother, his queen, and ſeveral of his children; an immenſe ſpoil, at the ſame time, falling into the hands of the victor.

Darius brought into the field at leaſt 400,000 men; one fourth of which were killed in this battle, whilſt Alexander did not loſe more than 4 or 500 men. When we attend to the deſcription given by hiſtorians, we ſhall however ceaſe to wonder at this diſparity. The Perſians had indeed the richeſt dreſſes and armour. Gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones abounded. But they were much fitter for the pageantry of a court than the exertions or dangers of war: And millions of ſuch ſoldiers would have in vain attempted to break through the Macedonian phalanx.

The conduct of Alexander was never more praiſe worthy than in his treatment of the Royal captives. Their attendants were continued, and every gratification to which they had been accuſtomed. Having once viſited the queen, Alexander never again entered her preſence. She was uncommonly beautiful,

and he would not truſt himſelf with the contemplation of her charms. It is not improbable that a delicacy to the unfortunate Darius alſo prevented viſits, which might be conſtrued to improper motives. For at this time the Macedonian king was almoſt as much diſtinguiſhed by his virtues as his victories. But alas! we ſhall ſoon ſee him become contemptible, and ſink beneath his own ſucceſſes.

Syria was the next country that ſubmitted to the conqueror; and the treaſures found in Damaſcus alone loaded 7,000 beaſts of burthen. Darius now made overtures of peace; but Alexander rejected all terms except thoſe of unconditional ſubmiſſion. As a reaſon for ſuch haughtineſs he mentioned the former invaſions of Greece. And he likewiſe accuſed Darius of inſtigating the murder of his father Philip.

Of all Phœnicia Tyre alone oppoſed Alexander. This city originally ſtood upon the main land; but on Nebuchadnezzar's formerly beſieging it, the inhabitants had erected

a new town on an adjacent iſland, in which they had ſucceſsfully defied the Babyloniſh monarch. They thought to do the ſame by the Macedonian. He however made a cauſeway that united it to the continent; and with the aid of the ſhipping belonging to Sidon and other places it was taken by ſtorm. He then ſacrificed to the Tyrian Hercules; and having generouſly continued Azelmichus its king, notwithſtanding the vigorous defence he had made, Alexander proceeded to Judea.

Having ſettled the Jewiſh affairs, as already related, he ſet out for Egypt. The city of Gaza lay in his way, and for a ſhort time oppoſed him. Batis, a eunuch, was its governor, and by his brave defence he is ſaid to have irritated Alexander ſo much, that holes were bored through his feet when taken in order to faſten him to a chariot: which being done, he was dragged round the walls till he expired. Alexander was a great admirer of Homer, and is ſuppoſed to have done this cruel act in imitation of Achilles' treatment of Hector. But ſome authors deny

the truth of this tranſaction, and as yet I think he was not capable of it.

The Egyptians held the Perſians in ſo much deteſtation that they conſidered Alexander as their deliverer. And the Perſian governor had ſo few forces that he ſubmitted without a blow. The Macedonian king ſtill further confirmed the affections of the Egyptians, by eſtabliſhing all their ſuperſtitions. He alſo ſacrificed to their Bull Apis, and others of their deities. And having celebrated the moſt magnificent games at Memphis, he proceeded down the Nile: At the mouth of which he laid the foundation of the famous city of Alexandria.

He next viſited the temple of Jupiter Ammon in Lybia; which, by means of the deſerts he had to paſs, was a journey of great difficulty. On his arrival there the oracle ſaluted him as the ſon of Jupiter Ammon, declaring his mother Olympias had been impregnated by that deity. By what means the prieſts were brought to ſay ſo is not recorded. But the effect it had on Alexander was to

make him behave, on many occaſions, in a manner unworthy the meaneſt of mankind. And as ſoon as his mother heard of his deification, ſhe wittily wrote to him not to embroil her in a quarrel with Juno.

Having wintered in Egypt, he ſet out for Tyre in the beginning of the year 332. Whilſt his forces were aſſembling at that city Darius ſent him freſh overtures, offering him a daughter in marriage, with all the countries to the South of the Euphrates for her portion. On hearing theſe terms Parmenio, one of his generals, exclaimed that he would accept of them. So would I, ſays Alexander, if I were Parmenio. And he then ſent word to Darius that he muſt ſubmit without terms, or oppoſe him in the field.

Before any freſh hoſtilities took place, Statira the wife of Darius died, and Alexander gave her a moſt magnificent funeral. When this, and the kind treatment of the other royal priſoners was reported to Darius, he forgot all reſentment: And generouſly prayed, that if the period of his own reign was

come, it might be Alexander that ſucceeded him in the throne of Cyrus.

By the cowardice or treachery of Mazæus, a Perſian general, Alexander was ſuffered to paſs both the Euphrates and Tigris without oppoſition. Darius was poſted near a place called Gangamella with at leaſt 1,000,000 of horſe and foot. And to engage theſe the Macedonian had no more than 40,000 infantry, and 7000 cavalry. When Parmenio beheld ſuch fearful odds, he adviſed his maſter to attack them by night; but Alexander replied he would not ſteal a victory. He therefore engaged in the morning, and before the cloſe of day gained that battle which decided the fate of the Perſian empire.

Darius behaved with great courage in this action, and in his flight he gave a marked inſtance of the nobleneſs of his nature. It was propoſed by ſome of his attendants to break down a bridge which he had croſſed, that his retreat might be ſecure. But when he conſidered that numbers of his people would thereby loſe the opportunity of eſcaping, he

abſolutely forbade it. He however accompliſhed his preſent ſafety, though he was never afterwards able to make head againſt his conqueror.

Babylon next ſubmitted to Alexander, and the inhabitants of that province were no leſs pleaſed at the change than the Egyptians had been before them; for the Perſians had deſtroyed their idols alſo: And Alexander not only reſtored them, but ſacrificed in perſon to Belus. In Suſa, the capital of Perſia, to which the Macedonian king now proceeded, he found treaſures that amounted to nine millions of our money. Being thus poſſeſſed of ample means to recompenſe thoſe who had claims on him; he ſent ſeveral rich preſents to the Grecian ſtates: And moſt liberally rewarded all his followers.

Having added ſeveral other parts to his conqueſts, he directed his courſe towards Perſepolis. This had latterly been a place of reſidence for the Perſian kings, and was the ſecond, if not the firſt city, of that empire. Hitherto clemency had followed ſubmiſſion;

but though Perſepolis gave no reſiſtance, he allowed his ſoldiers to plunder it. As it was at this time winter, he made it his quarters for that ſeaſon, and gave himſelf up to every kind of exceſs. In one of his drunken ſcenes, Athenais, an Athenian courtezan, ſuggeſted to him, that burning Perſepolis would be a proper return for the deſtruction of Athens by Xerxes. The inebriated Monarch eagerly embraced the propoſal; and ſeizing a lighted torch, his chief officers, who were with him, followed the example. They then ſet fire to the palace, and the flames ſpreading to the adjoining buildings, Perſepolis was in a ſhort time reduced to aſhes.

Darius had taken up his quarters at Ecbatana in Media, but as ſoon as he knew Alexander to be again in the field, he retreated towards the Caſpian ſea. Beſſus, the governor of Bactria, accompanied this unfortunate Monarch; and conceiving that he ſhould be able to oppoſe Alexander, he ſeized his unhappy maſter, and uſurped the command of the forces. But Alexander at this time preſ-

ſed Beſſus ſo cloſe, that he was forced to leave the litter, in which Darius was carried, behind him. And leſt a change of fortune might give his injured King the power of vengeance, he was mortally wounded before he was abandoned.

Polyſtratus, one of Alexander's Captains, came up with the litter, whilſt Darius was yet living. His laſt breath was ſpent in ſending thanks to Alexander for the generous treatment he had ſhewn to his family. He alſo prayed, that the Gods might reward him with the empire of the univerſe; concluding with giving his hand to Polyſtratus, at the ſame time charging him to tell Alexander, he had done ſo, as a pledge of his good wiſhes and forgiveneſs.

Thus fell Darius, and from the accounts of every hiſtorian, he ſeems to have deſerved a better fate. The ways of Heaven are impenetrable, nor are we able to account for the different fortunes of mankind. But this we do know, that the happieſt and longeſt life, is nothing when compared to eternity.

And as virtue muſt be ultimately happy, and vice miſerable; the temporary bleſſings, or misfortunes of this ſpan of exiſtence, are almoſt equally inſignificant.

On Alexander's learning how Darius had cloſed his life, he burſt into tears, at the ſame time giving orders for his interment, with the uſual magnificence. This event happened in the year 331, and either 205 or 206 years after Cyrus began his Empire. And I ſhall therefore conclude this letter with an account of the laws, religion, and cuſtoms of Perſia.

The Perſian Kings were abſolute in the extreme. All who approached them proſtrated themſelves at their feet. And if a ſubject was even ordered to put himſelf to death, he inſtantly and readily obeyed.—Theſe Monarchs ſometimes ſat in judgment themſelves, and all judges were appointed by them. There were fixed regulations, which were generally adhered to, but then the King was above all law. Even the higheſt ſubject might be publicly whipt at his pleaſure; and ſo abject was their ſlavery, that on ſuch

occaſions they returned their Monarch thanks for having remembered them. No perſon approached the Sovereign without a preſent; and when he travelled, all the vaſſals which he paſſed by brought him ſuch compliments as their ſtation permitted. If any perſon came to adviſe the King, he was placed on an ingot of gold, which was his reward, if what he had to ſay was deemed ſerviceable. But if otherwiſe, he was whipt for his intruſion.

The title of the Perſian Monarch was that of King of Kings, and the crown was hereditary. The coronation was performed by the Prieſts; and at it, a mantle, which had belonged to Cyrus, was worn by every King. To eat ſome figs and turpentine, and to drink a little ſour milk, was alſo a part of this ceremony. The Tiara, or Crown, which was a ſort of Turban, was then placed on his head. Its point was erect, whereas thoſe of the ſubjects were bent. And beſides this diſtinction, the King's Turban, or Tiara, had a purple and white band round it, called the Diadem. A general mourning

took place at the death of every Monarch, and the ſacred fires were then let out, during the ſpace of five days. There were particular guards, whoſe duty it was to give information of all commotions; for which purpoſe they were ſcattered over the provinces. The mode of communication was by lighting fires on hills that were appointed for that purpoſe. And there were alſo couriers, or poſts, eſtabliſhed throughout the Empire.

Theſe Monarchs uſually reſided either at Babylon, Ecbatana, Suſa, or Perſepolis; in each of which places they had magnificent gardens, parks, and palaces. Every ornament that gold, ſilver, and precious ſtones could form, abounded. The water of the river Choaſpes, in Media, being deemed particularly good, was carried about in ſilver veſſels to wherever the King went. The wine of Damaſcus, in Syria—the wheat of Phrygia—the ſalt of Egypt, and the choice things of every other province, were alſo always at their table. During their repaſts, they were entertained with both vocal and

inſtrumental muſic; and the fineſt women that could be procured, were always ready to adminiſter to their pleaſures. That a conſtant ſupply of money ſhould be at hand, a cheſt containing 5000 talents, was at all times placed at the head of the King's bed, and another at its foot with 3000 more: and thus they poſſeſſed every means of gratifying their wiſhes. Yet Xerxes is ſaid to have been ſo far from being ſatisfied, as to offer a large reward to the inventor of any new pleaſure. Indeed luxury was never carried to greater exceſs, than by the Perſian Monarchs. The whole taxes of a province were ſometimes ſquandered on a queen or concubine. One city furniſhed ornaments for the hair—another for the neck—a third for her girdle, and ſo on as to the reſt of her apparel.

It was uſual for the Kings either to viſit the provinces in perſon, or to ſend commiſſioners, at ſtated times: and when the latter were employed, they were called the King's eyes and ears. It is alſo ſaid, that every morning an officer reminded the King, that

Oromazes, or God, had placed him on the throne to do good. The ordinary guards of the Perſian Kings were 15,000 in number, all of whom were ſtiled the King's couſins. And beſides theſe, there was the immortal band of 10,000.

A ſort of voluntary contribution provided for the exigencies of the ſtate, during the reigns of Cyrus and Cambyſes: but as the Kings were abſolute, it is eaſy to conceive how little free will had to ſay to ſuch payments. Darius Hyſtaſpes, however, changed this mode to fixed and certain taxes, from whence he was called the Merchant; though, in fact, it was infinitely better calculated for the happineſs of his people.

The education of children was particularly attended to. This was chiefly committed to the Magi, and the royal progeny were under the care of four of the chief of that order. At the age of ſeventeen, every Perſian was inrolled as a ſoldier. Parents had abſolute power over their childrens lives and fortunes, and no child ever ſat in the preſence of its

father. A numerous iſſue was deemed the greateſt bleſſings; and thoſe who had it, were ſure to taſte of the bounty of their ſovereign.

The Perſians were temperate in eating, though much addicted to liquor. It was their cuſtom to talk over every thing they intended to do when in their cups; but their final deciſion was not made till ſober. Equals ſaluted each other with a kiſs; whilſt inferiors always proſtrated themſelves to their ſuperiors. The ancient Perſians were remarkable for their love of truth. They had alſo an abhorrence of running in debt: but by the conqueſts of other nations, they very ſoon became a very depraved people. They were allowed as many concubines and wives as they thought proper: and they had no idea of inceſt, ſometimes marrying their ſiſters, and even their mothers. They were, however, extremely jealous, from whence they employed eunuchs; and that infamous practice is ſuppoſed to have originated with them. Their chief ſkill in arms was origi-

nally the bow and arrow, which they uſed on horſeback. Cyrus, however, introduced other weapons, with a cloſer order of fighting; and chariots, armed with ſcythes, became common amongſt them. Every ſoldier was clad in armour, and their horſes uſed in war had alſo a defenſive covering. In going out on any expedition, every man put an arrow in an appointed place. And on the return of the forces, thoſe who ſurvived took one out for each, by which means the numbers loſt were aſcertained. Over their armour they wore purple cloaks, and the King was diſtinguiſhed by one of white. Their wives, children, and concubines always accompanied them to the field; and though unwieldy companions, the fear of loſing them was ſuppoſed to add to their courage. From ſome ſuperſtitious ideas, they never marched or engaged by night. In time of action, the King was placed in the centre, and with him the royal banner. This was a ſpread eagle of gold, which was fixed on the top of a ſpear. Single combats are ſaid to have been

practiſed amongſt them, but whether it was, or was not uſed to decide matters of property, is not recorded.

Parricide was not particularized from murder, becauſe the child in ſuch caſes was deemed ſpurious. But what puniſhment was inflicted for any crime, ſeems to have been diſcretionary in thoſe who tried the culprits. It was not uſual, however, to puniſh any firſt offence with death. And the whole life of the accuſed was, in every trial, taken into conſideration. The accuſed and the accuſer were always placed face to face. And when the perſon under trial was acquitted, his adverſary received the ſame ſentence that he endeavoured to get inflicted. Ingratitude was tried and puniſhed by theſe people. A mode of putting criminals to death, was the boats, which ſeems peculiar to the Perſians. This was done by fitting two boats to each other, with apertures for the head, hands, and feet. The face was then anointed with honey, to invite waſps and other inſects, and in this ſituation the criminal lay till he ex-

pired. Any perſon with a leproſy was baniſhed, as they ſuppoſed it a puniſhment for ſome concealed offence. Walking was confined to the lower orders of Perſians, for every perſon of rank appeared on horſes, richly capariſoned, and with arms by their ſides. And in this way they paid their viſits, and ſettled every tranſaction that required being in the open air.

Prior to the times of Darius Hyſtaſpes, there was very little knowledge in Perſia. But aſtronomy, mathematics, and other branches of ſcience, were then introduced by Zoroaſter; as was alſo a ſyſtem of religion, nearer the truth than that of any other in the heathen world.

Hyſtaſpes, the father of Darius, was appointed maſter of the Magi. He was himſelf a man of ſtudy, and had viſited ſeveral diſtant countries. But he had the virtue and good ſenſe to call to his aid, in the reforming of religion, a man of ſtill greater abilities and knowledge. This was Zerduſht, or Zoroaſter. He had viſited thoſe places which

were then moſt celebrated; and as Chaldea was one of the nations where he ſought improvement, I think there can be no doubt but he was well acquainted with the works of the Prophet Daniel, and alſo of the general principles of the Iſraelites. Thus qualified, his notions were readily received; and the new Magi, or Prieſts of Perſia, under the direction of Hyſtaſpes, made it the eſtabliſhed worſhip of their country.

Zoroaſter ſaid, there was one great and inviſible God, called Oromazes. By him the univerſe was created and governed: But an evil ſpirit was for a time permitted to have a certain degree of power. During that period, light and darkneſs, good and evil, were to be in a perpetual ſtate of warfare: till at length light was to be ſeparated from darkneſs, never more to be confounded. He conceived there was a time when all were happy, and that the preſent ſtage of exiſtence was a ſtate of probation, and for the purpoſe of expiating former offences. Beſides Oromazes, there was a ſecondary deity,

called Mythras, which is alſo their name for the ſun. He was ſuppoſed to be conſtantly engaged in combating the evil ſpirit, and was at length to overthrow him; by which the world was to be reſtored to order and happineſs. And to Mythras, they gave a wife called Mythra.

Zoroaſter alſo taught rewards and puniſhments; and that the fourth day after death, the ſoul of every deceaſed mortal arrived at a bridge, where two angels weighed the actions of their life. If the good preponderated, they were permitted to paſs. But if not, they fell over into a place of miſery. He ſaid, that the moſt acceptable worſhip to God, was doing good to one another; and that no man, however wicked, need deſpair, if his repentance was ſincere and permanent. Thus far, there is little difference from the Iſraelitiſh diſpenſations; and the omnipotence of God was fully admitted and eſtabliſhed.

As to ſome other inſtitutions of Zoroaſter there are great diſputes whether they do or not come under the deſcription of idolatry.

There were towers in which a fire deemed ſacred was kept conſtantly burning, except on the death of their kings. But theſe buildings only held the fire, and no temples were erected in this country, becauſe it was deemed abſurd to confine a pure ſpirit within walls. The prieſts therefore taught the people in the open air adjacent to their reſpective towers. And theſe holy fires are ſuppoſed to have been only conſidered as emblematic of the Deity. To pollute the air by ill ſmells, or to throw filth into water was forbidden, and it is probable theſe elements were likewiſe conſidered as emblems of the ſupreme Being. The ſun and moon were alſo eſteemed the two great witneſſes of God. When they prayed by day they therefore turned their face to the ſun, and by night the ſame poſture was obſerved towards the moon. Upon the whole I am inclined to think that theſe forms were not intended to divide or diminiſh the worſhip and glory of the true and only God.

It is ſaid that Zoroaſter very particularly inſtructed the magi as to the coming of

Chriſt. He alſo informed them that at the time of his birth they ſhould ſee a ſtar in which there would be the figure of a virgin. And ſome of them were ordered to go with preſents to the child as ſoon as this ſignal ſhould appear. If this be a fact there can be little doubt but it was from Perſia that the wiſe men of the Eaſt came to worſhip the new born king of the Jews, as recorded in the New Teſtament.

The prieſts or magi were of three claſſes. The loweſt order attended parochial duty. The ſecond preſided over particular diſtricts. And the third was the archimagus, or head of all. They were extremely plain in their garb, and abſtemious in their mode of living, refraining from every thing that had ever poſſeſſed life. This was in conſequence of their believing that the ſouls of men had a progreſs through the bodies of animals. And in another place we ſhall find Pythagoras, inſtructing the Greeks and Italians in the ſame opinion.

From the times of Darius Hyſtaſpes to the

deſtruction of the Perſian empire theſe tenets were propagated through its provinces, whilſt the idols and temples were in moſt places deſtroyed. But under Alexander every nation ſubjected by him was allowed to return to their own idolatries. And the Perſian religion was from thenceforth confined within its own peculiar boundary. Of Egypt and the countries of Aſia there is nothing memorable that has not fallen in with the Perſian empire. And as Cyrene and Carthage will come in better towards the cloſe of this diviſion of hiſtory, I ſhall in my next proceed to Greece and Macedon.

SECOND LETTER.

AMONG the ſtates of Greece, Athens and Sparta had riſen to the greateſt conſequence: And with their tranſactions, whatever is material as to the reſt, will naturally fall in. Piſiſtratus, the tyrant of Athens, expired about the year 517, tranſmitting the ſupreme power to his ſons Hipparchus and Hippias. The firſt, in a few years, brought himſelf to a violent death, by forcing a young man, named Harmodius, to his unnatural luſts. He was remarkably handſome, and, according to the infamous practice of the Greeks, was beloved by another Athenian, called Ariſtogiton. Theſe two youths therefore revenged themſelves, by aſſaſſinating Hipparchus, but Hippias eſcaping, put them to death. Their execution, however, rouſed the people of Athens, who expelled the ſurviving ſon of Piſiſtratus, and erected ſtatues to Harmodius and Ariſtogiton, as martyrs in the cauſe of liberty. Much about this time, Athens was

viſited with a plague, and Epimenedes, a Philoſopher, raiſed an altar to the unknown God, in order to avert it.

Several petty conteſts had taken place amongſt the different ſtates of Greece, prior to the attacks made by the Perſians. Theſe powerful invaders, however, for a time ſuppreſſed all internal broils. Yet in the action of Marathon, the only aid which the Athenians obtained, was 1000 men from the city of Platæa. Theſe, with 9000 from Athens, made up the whole force that won that celebrated battle. To command it, ten Generals were appointed, who ſhould act in daily rotation as Generaliſſimo. They differed much as to the mode of oppoſing the enemy; till at length Miltiades, who was one of them, carried his opinion. This was to meet the Perſians in the open field. Ariſtides, another of their Generals, then conceived, that it would be more conducive to the public good, to let Miltiades have the ſole power. As ſoon as his day came, he therefore ſurrendered to him his command, which exam-

ple being followed by the reſt, Miltiades had the entire management of what he had propoſed. This probably inſured the ſucceſs which followed at Marathon. And the tranſaction was commemorated, by a picture repreſenting the engagement, with Miltiades at the head of his brother Generals: that honor being deemed an ample reward for this important victory.

During the reſpite which Athens obtained by this overthrow of the Perſians, Miltiades went on an expedition againſt the iſland of Paros. It was planned by himſelf, and proving unſucceſsful, a fine of fifty talents was impoſed on him, by his ungrateful countrymen. Soon after which he died of the wounds he had received in this unfortunate undertaking.

On the diſgrace and death of Miltiades, Ariſtides and Themiſtocles became the greateſt men at Athens. The firſt was remarkable for his wiſdom and integrity, and had the glorious appellation of Juſt. He was beloved by the principal citizens; but his man-

ners were ungracious, and he had neither the art nor deſire of pleaſing the multitude. On the other hand, Themiſtocles, who had alſo great abilities, was poſſeſſed of the moſt inſinuating manners. Theſe, without half the integrity of his rival, ſoon rendered him the favourite of the people; and Ariſtides was baniſhed by the Oſtraciſm. On that occaſion, it is ſaid, a citizen who could not write, and who was alſo ignorant of the perſon of Ariſtides, applied to him to put his name upon the ſhell. He did ſo, but at the ſame time aſked, What offence Ariſtides had given? To this the citizen replied, He knew none, but he was tired of always hearing him ſpoke of, with the title of Juſt.

When Xerxes aſcended the Perſian throne, Themiſtocles was, in fact, the ruler of Athens. He therefore effectually exerted himſelf in increaſing its navy, and to it you have ſeen them owe their ſafety. By him principally the Greek ſtates were alſo brought to unite for their general preſervation. In the battle of Salamis, Ariſtides, who had

been recalled, likewiſe diſtinguiſhed himſelf. But Themiſtocles received, and deſerved the greateſt applauſe. And on entering the Olympic Games, the compliments paid him were ſo uncommon, that he exclaimed, he was recompenſed even beyond his deſires.

Whilſt the Greeks were thus gaining the higheſt honors by arms, they were alſo increaſing in philoſophic and poetic fame. Beſides Epimenides, Anaximander, the diſciple of Thales, at this time flouriſhed; and was improving on the knowledge of his maſter. Heraclius, another Greek Philoſopher, was alſo celebrated. And in poetry, Pindar, the Theban, and ſoon after him, Æſchilus, the firſt compoſer of tragedies, were particularly diſtinguiſhed.

By the exertions of Themiſtocles, not only Athens, but its port of Piræus, was ſtrongly fortified. This, and all his former ſervices, could not however give ſtability to his popularity. He was accuſed of pride, oſtentation, and ambition, and in his turn experienced the Oſtraciſm: On which he took ſhelter in

the Perſian court; where you have ſeen him prefer a voluntary death, rather than fight againſt his ungrateful country.

In his public acts, the worſt thing done by Themiſtocles, was procuring the baniſhment of Ariſtides: and he alſo meditated a piece of treachery, to aggrandize his country, which no man of real principle could ever have entertained. After the battle of Salamis, he would have deſtroyed all the ſhips of the confederate Greeks, except thoſe of the Athenians, had not Ariſtides interpoſed. For, at his inſtigation, though ſuch a meaſure would have undoubtedly given Athens a ſuperiority by ſea, its inhabitants rejected an action that muſt have been attended with ſo much loſs of honor. From theſe circumſtances, I may with ſafety pronounce; that though Themiſtocles was a great, yet he was alſo a very mixed character. But he certainly did not merit the ill treatment which he received from Athens.

Ariſtides was now raiſed to the exalted ſtation of commanding the united Greeks.

This happened on the diſmiſſion of Pauſanias; who, by his haughty and overbearing conduct, had highly offended the allies. It was alſo diſcovered, that he had been intriguing with the Perſians to betray his country; on which he took ſanctuary in the temple of Minerva at Sparta. Here he was ſtarved to death; his own mother pointing out how he might periſh, without polluting the temple. For ſhe ſilently brought a tile and laid it at the door, which example being followed, the entrance was ſo barricaded, as to render his eſcape impoſſible.

As Generaliſſimo, it was the duty of Ariſtides to fix the ſhips, men, and money, which every ſtate ſhould furniſh. This he did with ſo much equity, that it was called the happy lot or arrangement for Greece. He had alſo the almoſt ſingular good fortune, to retain the eſteem of his countrymen to the laſt. And Plato afterwards ſaid of him, that he ſtudied to fill Athens with virtue. But even Ariſtides, is ſaid to have been addicted to the unnatural luſt for boys. What can

one ſay of a people, where this abominable vice was not even diſcountenanced? For my own part, when I find ſuch a man as Ariſtides charged with it, I lament his living in thoſe days. And I regret, that his otherwiſe unblemiſhed name, ſhould be contaminated by the infamous practice of his country.

If you wiſh for every minutiæ as to the lives of the moſt celebrated Greeks and Romans, you will find them in the works of Plutarch, which are well worthy of your peruſal; for it would quite exceed the bounds I preſcribe to myſelf, to recite all the particulars of thoſe diſtinguiſhed characters.

Cimon, the ſon of Miltiades, was the next leader of Athens. He began his career by taking ſeveral ſettlements in Thrace, which till then had belonged to the Perſians. He then relieved the ſeas from a neſt of pirates, which inhabited the iſland of Scyros, obliging them to fly from that country. And he deſtroyed ſo many Perſian ſhips, and poſſeſſed himſelf of ſo much plunder, that Artaxerxes was glad to conclude the peace already

recited; ſo honourable to the Greeks, and at the ſame time ſo humiliating to the Perſian Monarch.

Sophocles and Eurypides, two dramatic writers, now flouriſhed in Greece, and Æſchylus was ſtill alive. But a prize given to Sophocles, where a tragedy of his and Æſchylus's was produced, ſo affected the old Poet, that he retired to Sicily, and ſoon after expired. Theſe tragedies were exhibited at games lately inſtituted to the memory of Theſeus. For Cimon, by the direction of an oracle, had brought his bones from Scyros, after expelling the pirates. And they were not only received with the higheſt veneration, but divine honors were now paid to this ancient King of Athens.

Of all men Cimon ſeemed to be ſecure of the affections of his countrymen. Added to the great ſervices he had performed, his mode of private life was peculiarly endearing. His riches were immenſe, but his expenditures were ſuitable. He both ſtrengthened and ornamented Athens, at his own expence.

His extenſive gardens and fields were open to every citizen, who might alſo uſe their product, as if it had been their own. His table was always plentifully covered, and his numerous gueſts were entertained with the moſt unbounded hoſpitality. Yet neither his ſucceſſes, nor good qualities, could ſecure the ever fickle people. And Pericles, the ſon of Xanthippus, an eminent Athenian, was ſoon to riſe upon his ruins.

Sparta being nearly deſtroyed by an earthquake, the Helotes, with what remained of the Meſſenians, ſeized that opportunity of revolting. In this dilemma, the Lacedæmonians applied to Athens for aſſiſtance, which was obtained by the influence of Cimon, though with difficulty. But in the courſe of this war with the Helotes, Sparta greatly offended Athens. The reſentment of the populace was then artfully turned by Pericles to Cimon, who had been ſo much the friend of Lacedæmonia; which ended in his being driven from his country by the Oſtraciſm.

Several petty wars took place with Sparta and other ſtates, which were of little conſequence; except that Pericles made them a means of favouring the Democracy. To the people he looked, and therefore he ſought to humble the nobles. For this purpoſe he brought the court of Areopagus into contempt; all conſiderable cauſes being henceforth referred to the citizens at large. Theſe meaſures greatly offended the principal Athenians. They therefore anxiouſly ſought the reſtoration of Cimon; cauſing his generoſity and great atchievements to reſound throughout Athens. And Pericles perceiving that he could not prevent his return, moſt artfully took the credit of it, by propoſing his recall.

The firſt act of Cimon was, to make peace with Sparta and her allies. It had ever been his object, to direct the combined forces of Greece againſt the Perſians; and perhaps it was the only way of keeping them in friendſhip with each other. He therefore again ſet ſail with a powerful ar-

mament for the coaſts of Aſia. There he made many ſucceſsful deſcents, reaping both honor and profit; but he at length died, either a natural death, or of his wounds, whilſt he was beſieging Cyzicum, in the iſland of Cyprus; and his remains were carried to Athens, where they received all poſſible honors.

Cimon in his youth was rather ſtupid; though his manhood produced an able ſtateſman, orator, ſoldier, and navigator. He was a true friend to the conſtitution of Athens; and though he gained the affections of the people by his liberality, he uniformly oppoſed their encroachments. In his days, Perſian gold was become plenty in Greece, and corruption was in faſhion; yet the hands of Cimon were never contaminated by bribes. A love of wine and women were his greateſt faults: the firſt however, was ſo blended with hoſpitality, as almoſt to become a virtue; whilſt the latter, was in a comparative degree amiable, when compared to the luſts of others. In ſhort, there

was much to love and little to hate in his character; and Cimon, was excelled by very few indeed amongſt the Grecians.

Cimon had pleaſed the Athenians, by laying out his own private fortune; but Pericles had the art to ſecure their affections by the expenditure of the public money. Immenſe works were carried on; and the people employed, being chiefly nominated by means of Pericles, neceſſarily became his followers. He likewiſe procured payment to the people for their attending ſtate affairs, at the ſame time feaſting and entertaining them out of the public treaſury. Being ſucceſsful in ſeveral wars, it added to his popularity; and the people in every ſenſe conſidered him, as their patron and protector.

Aſpaſia, a courtezan, from the city of Miletus in Aſia Minor, had ſettled at Athens. She was equally remarkable for her wit, learning, beauty, and looſeneſs of life; and ſo great were her charms in converſation, that Socrates himſelf was delight-

ed with them. Pericles was ſo ſenſible of all theſe powers, that he took her as his miſtreſs, putting away his wife in order to receive her. Her aſcendancy at length roſe to ſuch a height, that he conſulted her on every thing, and it was this woman that gave riſe to the Samian war.

Miletus, the native city of Aſpaſia, had quarrelled with the iſland of Samos. Pericles therefore engaged the Athenians to take part with Miletus; and to pleaſe his miſtreſs, he conducted the armament in perſon. After various ſucceſſes, he entirely ſubdued the Samians; levelled their chief city to the ground; and having impoſed a heavy fine, returned in triumph to Athens. He then delivered an oration in honour of thoſe who had fallen; which ſo exquiſitely touched the feelings of his audience, as to draw forth the higheſt applauſe; and this pathetic funeral compoſition is aſcribed to Aſpaſia.

Pericles, from this time, aſſumed a ſuperiority in his deportment, that was very unpleaſing to the people; and the nobles,

who hated him, taking the advantage of this change, reſolved to ſap his credit: beginning by an attack upon thoſe with whom he was particularly connected.

Phidias, the moſt celebrated ſtatuary at Athens, came under this deſcription. He was therefore accuſed of embezzling part of the gold which was given him to cover a ſtatue to Minerva; and alſo of repreſenting himſelf and Pericles, by ſome of the figures engraven on her ſhield. Of the firſt charge he was acquitted, but found guilty of the latter; and he was then thrown into priſon, where he ſhortly died, as is ſuppoſed by poiſon. The famous ſtatue to Jupiter, in the temple at Olympia, was alſo executed by this artiſt; and from its great ſize, and exquiſite workmanſhip, it was afterwards deemed one of the ſeven wonders of the world.

Aſpaſia was next attacked by Hermippus, a comic Poet. He accuſed her of impiety, and alſo of receiving into her houſe, women above the rank of ſlaves, who ad-

miniſtered to the pleaſures of Pericles. Pericles on this occaſion defended her with all his eloquence; and with difficulty obtained her acquittal. Anaxagoras, the tutor of Pericles, and at this time a celebrated Philoſopher, was the next to ſtand his trial. The accuſation made againſt him was, his aſſerting, that the ſun, moon, and ſtars, were material bodies, and not deities. He alſo ſaid that the univerſe owed its conſtruction neither to chance nor neceſſity; but to a pure unmixed mind, that reduced all things to order. Such doctrines were ſo oppoſite to the idolatries of Athens, that no doubt remained of his condemnation; and therefore, by the aid of Pericles, he ſaved himſelf by flight.

Pericles in his own perſon, as might well be expected, was now to ſtand the brunt of his enemies. The ſums which every Grecian ſtate contributed were lodged in Delos; as it was never attacked, on account of its being deemed particularly holy. But Pericles, as commanding the

united fleets of Greece drew the whole ſum from thence to Athens. This he juſtified by ſaying that very few ſhips were furniſhed except by the Athenians. And therefore having in fact defended Greece againſt the Perſians, that money of right belonged to them. Whilſt Pericles was in the heighth of popularity it would have been in vain to have looked for an account. But now a decree was obtained at the inſtigation of Sparta and other ſtates, that Pericles ſhould ſhow the manner of its expenditure.

This was a dreadful ſtroke to this hitherto ſucceſsful Athenian. He had not indeed aggrandized his private fortune, but he had made that fund ſubſervient to his ambition: For a conſiderable part of it had gone to the ornamenting of Athens, and to the payment and entertainment of the people. However ſuch an application of the public money of Greece could by no means bear an inveſtigation. And his ruin could only be prevented by diverting the Athenians from this enquiry. At this critical juncture the Megareans ſlew

an Athenian herald. This very juſtly irritated his countrymen, and Pericles, heightening the offence with all his eloquence, obtained a declaration of war. Megara being the ally of Sparta, a breach with that ſtate was alſo the conſequence. And Pericles being the only general the Athenians could confide in, his ſervices were indiſpenſable: By which means a total end was put to all enquiry as to the expenditure of the public money.

This war commenced in the year 431, involving in it almoſt every nation of Greece. All the Peloponneſian kingdoms were on the ſide of Megara, as were alſo the Thebans, and the people of the iſland of Ægina, beſides ſome inferior ſtates. Moſt of the iſlands of the Archipelago, together with the Greeks of Aſia Minor, ſided with Athens. And to prevent all accommodation the Perſian emiſſaries in Greece were furniſhed with plenty of gold, which they judiciouſly diſtributed. Nor did this conflict, which is called the firſt Peloponneſian war, finally end till 27 years after its commencement.

The great ſtrength of Athens was her navy. And being weak in land forces, the Spartans and their allies began the attack by entering Attica with a powerful army. Pericles, with great judgment, prevailed on the Athenians to abandon the open country and retire within the walls of their capital. He at the ſame time diſpatched the fleet to ravage the coaſts of Peloponneſus. This, as he had foreſeen, obliged the enemy to withdraw their forces for the protection of their own countries. But human wiſdom cannot ſecure the ſucceſs of its deſigns. A plague breaking out in Athens ſwept off numbers; and being aſcribed to the multitudes that had crowded into the city, Pericles was loaded with reproach. The ſame fatal diſeaſe had alſo ſpread into the army with which he had undertaken the ſiege of the city of Epidaurus. And being on that account obliged to abandon it, the rage of the populace became exceſſive. They deprived him of the command, fined him to a large amount, and he was within three votes of ſuffering death.

The Athenians now appointed other generals; all of whom proving unſucceſsful, Pericles was reinſtated in their favor. But after loſing all his legitimate children, and ſeveral of his neareſt friends by the plague, he was ſeized with it alſo. And before he could make any new exertions, it carried him off in the third year of the Peloponneſian war.

Under Pericles Athens roſe to its ſummit in the polite arts. Muſic and poetry flouriſhed, and ſtatues of exquiſite workmanſhip appeared without number. Various edifices were erected on the moſt perfect plans of architecture. And a temple, which was dedicated to Minerva, coſt one thouſand talents. But amidſt theſe ſplendid improvements Pericles laid the foundation of his country's ruin. The expenſive feaſts and entertainments, which were paid for from the public treaſury, gave the people ſuch a taſte for pleaſure as no ſituation, however dangerous, could afterwards eradicate. And though Athens under his adminiſtration became the nobleſt and moſt poliſhed city of the world,

the baſis of its liberty was at the ſame period ſhook to its foundation.

Pericles was eloquent, and had a perfect command of his temper. He was alſo a brave and ſucceſsful general; and as he gratified the people in every thing, it is no wonder that they gave him the ſurname of Olympius. He was likewiſe of a merciful temper, conſoling himſelf in his laſt moments with the reflection that no Athenian had ever put on mourning through his means: And his knowledge of the fine arts, with his encouragement of them, though not poſitive virtues, were at leaſt very pleaſing qualifications. Theſe are the good points of this great man's character. His oppoſite ones aroſe from a parſimonious diſpoſition, in regard to his private connexions: From an improper love of women: And from an unbounded ambition. Anaxagoras his tutor ſuffered extreme poverty by his neglect; and his own children likewiſe complained of his penury. We find him putting away his wife for a courtezan, whilſt at the ſame time he made this favou-

rite miſtreſs procure others for his pleaſures. He raiſed himſelf to power by unwarrantable expenditures, and by the moſt unconſtitutional attacks upon the ariſtocratic part of the Athenian government. In ſo mixed a character one is at a loſs to draw a concluſion. And I ſhall only add that whilſt I admire the virtues I deteſt the vices of Pericles.

Thucydides the hiſtorian, and Hippocrates the celebrated phyſician, were cotemporary with Pericles at Athens. Democritus a Grecian philoſopher likewiſe flouriſhed about this time. And the great Socrates was beginning to be diſtinguiſhed amongſt his countrymen.

For ſix or ſeven years after the death of Pericles there was no ſtateſman or general that made himſelf very conſpicuous in Greece. During this period the Peloponneſian war went on with various ſucceſs. And at length Nicias the Athenian general brought about a truce for fifty years.

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amicably ſettled, but for the intrigues of Alcibiades. Peace was ill ſuited to the riſing ambition of the latter. And at his inſtigation the war recommenced in the year 418.

Alcibiades was a young Athenian of noble birth, great talents, and a very ſuperior fortune. He had received his firſt inſtructions from Pericles his near relation; and to a handſome face, and agreeable perſon, he added a commanding eloquence. But with all theſe advantages he was vicious by nature; and Timon a miſanthrope, who at this time lived at Athens, well predicted the conſequences of his influence. For ſeeing him one day miſlead a public aſſembly, Timon, with a malicious tone, bade him go on and proſper, as by that means he would ruin the croud that then attended him.

Party now ran extremely high between Nicias and Alcibiades, each endeavouring to get rid of the other by the oſtraciſm. Hyperbolus, a very impudent, forward, vile fellow, taking advantage of their quarrel, attempted to raiſe himſelf to power. But this united

the two firſt, and by their influence the oſtraciſm paſſed upon the latter. Hitherto great men only had been driven from their country by this mode of condemnation. And the Athenians when they reflected on the contemptible character of Hyperbolus, were ſo much diſpleaſed at his being thus baniſhed, that the oſtraciſm was never more repeated.

In this new war the Athenians were joined by the Argives, Eleans, and Mantineans, who had been hitherto on the ſide of Sparta. But notwithſtanding this acceſſion Athens was at firſt unſucceſsful. At length Alcibiades was raiſed to the chief command, and was every where victorious. Elated by his great ſucceſſes his countrymen ſet no bounds to their ambition. They even made a decree, and ſwore to it, that they would conſider wheat, barley, vines, and olives as the only termination of their empire. Thereby meaning that they would ſubdue all thoſe countries in which theſe articles were the produce.

In ſuch a temper they were not likely to refuſe any overture that might lead to con-

queſt: And ſome cities in Sicily that had their origin from Athens now applied for ſuccour. Nicias oppoſed this foreign expedition with all his ability. But Alcibiades as warmly eſpouſed the other ſide of the queſtion, and ſucceeded. A powerful armament was decreed by the aſſembled people; and in the warmth of their imagination, they not only conſidered Sicily, but alſo Carthage and Italy, as having already yielded to their arms.

Though Nicias to the laſt oppoſed this undertaking, yet he was one of thoſe appointed to conduct it; and with him were joined Alcibiades and Lamarchus. Many ſigns are ſaid to have happened, which were deemed unfavourable to this expedition. Meton, a celebrated diviner, declared it would prove unfortunate. And the great Socrates, who now flouriſhed at Athens, predicted its cataſtrophe.

Syracuſe was the firſt object of this armament, and the Spartans diſpatched a body of

men, under Gylippus, to counteract it. The Athenians then reinforced their troops in this quarter. But the event was, the total loſs of both their fleet and army.

Though Alcibiades had promoted this expedition, and was appointed one of its conductors, he never acted in Sicily. For he had ſcarcely ſailed for that iſland, till an order was ſent after him to return to Athens. There were in that city ſtatues to Mercury, ſet up before private houſes and public edifices, which were deemed peculiarly holy. All theſe images, except one, had been lately mutilated, during the courſe of a ſingle night: And Alcibiades had ſcarcely departed, till he was accuſed of having done it in a drunken frolic. It was alſo alledged by his enemies, that he had ſported with the moſt ſacred myſteries of the gods: And he was recalled in order to ſtand his trial for theſe impieties. But though the people had overlooked his debaucheries, Alcibiades dreaded the effects of their ſuperſtition. And inſtead of reviſiting his native country, he inſtantly

fled to Sparta; where he offered his ſervices againſt Athens, and was moſt cordially entertained.

Though dreſs and luxury were highly pleaſing to Alcibiades, he made them yield to his ambition. He rendered himſelf popular among the Spartans, by conforming to the ſevereſt of their manners; and he became the chief director of all their warlike enterprizes. In this the Lacedæmonians acted wiſely, becauſe he beſt knew where Athens was vulnerable. Agis, one of the Spartan Kings, accordingly beat them by land, and fortified a place called Decelea, even in the territories of Attica. And at the ſame time Alcibiades not only proved victorious by ſea, but alſo detached from their intereſt a number of their allies. To add to theſe misfortunes, the Athenians, at this time, received an account of their total overthrow in Sicily: on which their wild ideas of conqueſt, were ſucceeded by thoſe of the deepeſt deſpair.

Fortunately for Athens, an irreconcileable animoſity had taken place between Agis and

Alcibiades. The latter had debauched the wife of the former, and even boaſted of his crime. When this was made known to Agis, he ſent private orders to have Alcibiades aſſaſſinated. But the Athenian eſcaped it, though narrowly; and took ſhelter with Tiſſaphernes, the Perſian governor of Lydia. Here he endeavoured to gain the good will of his countrymen, by detaching the Perſians from the intereſts of Sparta; and in ſome degree ſucceeded.

During the conſternation which prevailed at Athens, on the news of their complicated misfortunes, one of their principal citizens, named Piſander, totally ſubverted the democracy. The right of voting was then confined to 5000 citizens, who elected five annual magiſtrates, called Prytanes. Theſe Prytanes then named 100 perſons, each of whom appointed three others, and thoſe 400 conſtituted a ſenate, in which the ſupreme power was veſted.

In the hour of danger this had been quietly ſubmitted to by the people; but they ſtill

retained their love of power. The ſame ſentiments were entertained by the fleet and army, then aſſembled at Samos: and a leader alone was wanting to call them into action. The friends of Alcibiades did not omit ſo favourable an opportunity; but by their judicious management, the troops declared him their commander. On this, Piſander was forced to negotiate with Alcibiades, and a compromiſe took place. The right of voting was continued in the 5000, to the excluſion of the lower order; and the Prytanes were alſo to remain, but the ſenate was entirely aboliſhed.

This reſtoration of Alcibiades happened in the 21ſt year of the Peloponneſian war; and an immediate turn took place in their affairs. By his ſucceſſes, and by his affecting to be religious, Alcibiades regained the good opinion of the people. And in a ſhort time they reſtored him to all his former honors.

The Perſians, on ſeeing this favourable change for Athens, threw their aid again to Sparta. On this, Alcibiades attacked them

alſo with ſucceſs, proving victorious on many occaſions, and amaſſing a prodigious ſpoil. On his return to Athens, he, therefore, lightened the public taxes out of his own acquiſitions. And by other liberal acts, his popularity was raiſed ſo high, that the Athenians decreed him to be the ſole commander of their fleets and armies.

Sparta, at this period, would have concluded a peace on any terms: but the elated Athenians, talked of nothing leſs than the extirpation of their enemies. The Lacedæmonians were, therefore, forced to the utmoſt exertions. Hitherto the Perſians had rather aſſiſted underhand than openly; and they had changed ſides, ſo as to keep up a balance between the contending parties. But Cyrus, the ſon of Darius Nothus, who was now the governor of Aſia Minor, declared himſelf decidedly for Sparta. And Lyſander, the Lacedæmonian Admiral, with his aid, and that of the other allies, was able to face the Athenians on the ocean. Alcibiades was alſo at the head of a great armament. But

being obliged to leave it under the command of Antiochus, for a few days, it was entirely defeated, and almoſt every ſhip was taken or deſtroyed. This was owing to the diſobedience and ambition of Antiochus, who went in purſuit of Lyſander, notwithſtanding the moſt poſitive injunctions to the contrary. For Alcibiades had ordered him to avoid the enemy, and on no account to engage till his return.

At Athens, the firſt effect of this diſaſter was the moſt violent reſentment to Alcibiades. He was inſtantly deprived of all his offices and honors, and ten Generals were appointed to ſucceed him. As for Alcibiades himſelf, he retired to Thrace, with the few ſhips he had left. There he ſtrongly fortified himſelf, amaſſing great riches, by the plunder of the neighbouring territories; but he never again reviſited his native country.

The ten commanders were at firſt unſucceſsful, and Conon, who was one of them, being ſeparated from the reſt, was blocked up in the port of Mitylene. His nine col-

leagues having got a reinforcement, however, ſoon returned to his relief. And the Spartans, under Callycratides, were in their turn defeated; loſing ſeventy ſhips, whilſt nineteen only were ſunk on the part of the Athenians.

A very ſtrange proſecution was now commenced againſt the nine officers, who had thus reſcued Conon. They were accuſed of ſuffering the crews of the nineteen ſhips, which were ſunk, to periſh. It was in vain that they pleaded the heat of action, and that their exertions againſt the enemy rendered it impoſſible. It was alſo in vain that Socrates, one of the Prytanes, ſhewed the injuſtice of their condemnation; for ſix of them were ſentenced and executed. This being chiefly owing to the malice of Alcibiades's party; when the blind fury of the miſtaken multitude was over, they mourned for the victims they had made. And the accuſers of theſe unfortunate commanders were then ſlaughtered, without trial or mercy, wherever they were met with.

The four commanders who ſurvived, were

diſpatched in queſt of the Spartan fleet. It was inferior in number, on which account Lyſander, who commanded it, carefully avoided an engagement, taking ſhelter in the port of Lampſachus. Not daring to attack him in that harbour, the Athenians took poſt at Agmos Patmos, to watch his motions. They never once ſuppoſed that the Spartans would venture to attack them; and their men were therefore frequently ſuffered to go on ſhore. But Lyſander carefully informed himſelf of their ſituation, and coming ſuddenly upon them, nine ſhips, of all their numerous fleet, alone eſcaped. With eight of theſe Conon retired to Cyprus, rather than meet the fury of his countrymen; and the ninth conveyed the dreadful tidings to Athens.

Before the Athenians could in any degree recover this terrible misfortune, Agis entered Attica with a Spartan army, whilſt Lyſander appeared off their harbour. They had no alternative, and therefore ſubmitted on the following terms: That their port and walls ſhould be deſtroyed. Their govern-

ment changed to an Oligarchy, which Sparta ſhould nominate. Athens to have always a Lacedæmonian garriſon; and never to have more than twelve ſhips in its ſervice. Thus ended the firſt Peloponneſian war, either in the year 405 or 404; and much about the ſame time that Artaxerxes Mnemon ſucceeded to the throne of Perſia.

Lyſander had taken immenſe wealth in theſe ſucceſſes, but the Spartans decreed, that it, and all that ſhould at any time be thus acquired, muſt go into the public treaſury. This was however often evaded, and from thenceforth the Lacedæmonians were nearly as venal as any of their neighbours.

The death of Alcibiades happened ſhortly after the Spartans conquered Athens. It took place at a village in Phrygia, where he had retired with his wealth and a favorite miſtreſs. His houſe there was ſet on fire by a number of aſſaſſins; and on his eſcaping from the flames, they ſlew him by miſſile weapons, not daring to meet him hand to hand. This murder is differently accounted

for. Some ſay it was committed by order of the friends of a noble lady, whom he had debauched; others impute it to the Oligarchy at Athens, as they did not think their power permanent, whilſt the people had ſuch a leader to apply to.

In Alcibiades, we behold a ſtriking inſtance, how every natural qualification may be perverted. To gratify his own ambition, he by his eloquence plunged Athens into the renewal of that war, which ended in its deſtruction. His high birth and large fortune led him to the moſt guilty exceſſes, and to the moſt daring breaches of decency and good order. His courage was exerted againſt his native country, becauſe his vices had juſtly brought upon him their reſentment. And the beauty of his face and perſon, were employed in the baſeſt ingratitude; for by their means, he ſeduced the wife of that King, in whoſe court he had taken refuge. Thus, from a want of virtue, his birth, his riches, his perſonal advantages, his courage, and his abilities, became his greateſt misfortunes;

and inſtead of leaving a great and reſpectable name behind him, the lighteſt term we can give, is that of deſpicable, to his character.

The Oligarchy eſtabliſhed at Athens, conſiſted of thirty Athenians, who were in the intereſt, as well as the power of Sparta. They turned out ſuch dreadful tyrants, that more blood was ſhed by them, than had been ſpilt in the late unfortunate war. Socrates in vain attempted to prevent ſuch cruelties, and narrowly eſcaped himſelf. And when the Athenians would have left their country, rather than ſubmit to ſuch a government, Sparta declared, that no ſtate ſhould receive them with impunity. Argos and Thebes however deſpiſed ſuch threats, and numbers fled to both. Amongſt theſe, Thraſybulus was firſt in courage and abilities; he therefore put himſelf at the head of an inconſiderable body of fugitive Athenians. With them he ſeized a place of ſtrength in Attica, named Phyla; and being joined by many more, he poſſeſſed himſelf of the Piræus. Here he began to reſtore the fortifications, the tyrants

endeavouring, without effect, to diſpoſſeſs him; and Critias, the bloodieſt of them all, was ſlain in the attempt.

With ſuch a ſupport at hand, the people of Athens now ventured to expel the tyrants, who thereupon ſurpriſed the city of Eleuſine, and put its inhabitants to death. From it, they ſent to Sparta for aid, and Pauſanias, one of its Kings, was immediately ordered into Attica. Thraſybulus however, found means to get him over to his intereſt, and the Democracy was then reſtored. An act of oblivion at the ſame time paſſing, as to the tyrants and their followers.

This conduct in Pauſanias was very ill received at Sparta; nor would Thraſybulus have been able to ſtand his ground, but that the Lacedæmonians were now attacked by different enemies. This was owing to the Perſian gold, which Artaxerxes Mnemon cauſed to be judiciouſly diſtributed, in order to force the Spartans to evacuate Aſia Minor. The Thebans, who firſt took the

field, were ſoon ſtrengthened by a body of Athenians. They were however beat by the Spartans, and for the preſent compelled to retire.

Ageſilaus, the other Spartan King, was now recalled from Aſia Minor, and on his arrival in Peloponneſus, he took the command of their army. But though he gained ſeveral victories over the Greeks, who had been ſtirred up againſt his country, the loſs of the fleet on the coaſt of Aſia Minor, forced the Lacedæmonians, to make that humiliating peace with the Perſians which I have before related, and which was called the peace of Antalcidas, he being the perſon who ratified it on the part of Sparta.

It was much about this period, that the great Socrates, was condemned by the Athenians. He publicly taught the nobleſt truths of natural religion, and was reſorted to by the moſt celebrated youth of thoſe days. But his life and precepts were a ſevere ſatyr on the vices which then prevailed at

Athens; and the enemies he thereby created, had both the will and power to deſtroy him.

The firſt ſtep they took to undermine him with the people was, to expoſe him on the ſtage in a ludicrous character. For this purpoſe, they employed Ariſtophanes, a moſt licentious comic poet; and he did it ſo effectually, as to ſet the theatre in a roar of laughter. Socrates himſelf was preſent, and bore it with his accuſtomed philoſophy, ſaying, he conſidered himſelf, on this occaſion, as giving a feaſt to the people. There is nothing ſo venerable, but it may be placed in a ridiculous point of view; and his ignorant countrymen began to deſpiſe the man they had mocked; though that very mockery had its origin in their own folly and injuſtice.

Amongſt other glorious doctrines, this admirable heathen boldly aſſerted, that there was one great and inviſible God, who created and governed the univerſe; and who would reward and puniſh after death. He there-

fore enjoined the conqueſt of our paſſions, and the neceſſity of a virtuous life. But this was conſidered as blaſphemy againſt the eſtabliſhed ſuperſtitions; and two young men, remarkable for their vices, became his accuſers. Socrates ſupported his opinions with vaſt abilities, and concluded his defence with telling the aſſembled citizens, that he was out of their power. To fear death, ſaid this philoſopher, is abſurd, becauſe no man knoweth what happens after it; and therefore it may be the road to the greateſt felicity. But the juſtice of his reaſoning had no effect upon the multitude, and their ſentence was, that he ſhould die.

It was thirty days from his condemnation, before he was executed. This was owing to the annual voyage to Delos, inſtituted by Theſeus, being at this time performing; during which no perſon could be put to death. He might have ſaved his life by paying a large fine, or by flight: but on theſe heads he reſiſted every ſolicitation, alledging that either would look like guilt.

When the day arrived on which he was to take the hemlock, he converſed with Plato, Crito, and other friends and diſciples, with the greateſt chearfulneſs and compoſure; after which he drank off the poiſon, and calmly ſubmitted to his fate.

It is ſaid that Socrates had a familiar ſpirit attending him, which gave him a preſentiment of all that was to happen to himſelf, and alſo as to ſeveral other things that regarded futurity. Amongſt other anecdotes that relate to him, that of his wife Xantippe is worthy our notice. She was uncommonly ill tempered, and his friends wondered how he could put up with it. Socrates replied, that a wiſe man could turn every thing to his advantage: at the ſame time declaring, that the patience ſhe had obliged him to exerciſe, gave him that ſerenity for which he was ſo remarkable. Socrates lived to a very advanced age, and not long before his death a Phyſiognomiſt, on examining his face, pronounced him to be both luſtful and paſſionate. The man, on this, was

treated with great contempt, till Socrates declared, he had really been ſo, but that he had corrected thoſe vices by reaſon and reſolution. Such a conqueſt is more glorious, than all that ever Alexander performed. The nobleſt empire, is that which holds the paſſions in ſubjection; and I would rather be the imitator of Socrates than of all the heroes of antiquity.

Conon having brought about the peace of Antalcidas, by his great ſucceſſes, was in high favour with the Perſian monarch; he therefore obtained leave to return to Athens; and for political purpoſes, he had orders to reſtore it to its former ſtate. In doing this, he expended a part of his private fortune, as well as thoſe ſums furniſhed by Perſia; and the fortifications of that city and port, were rendered as formidable as ever. By ſome, Conon is ſaid to have died a natural death: whilſt others alledge, he was cut off at the court of Artaxerxes, for having done too much to aggrandiſe his native city.

Not long after the peace with Perſia Thebes was ſurpriſed by the Spartans: And aboliſhing the democracy, they fixed an oligarchy on its ruins. But Epaminondas and Pelopidas, two celebrated Thebans, with the aid of Athens removed this yoke, reſtoring the old conſtitution. Several battles both by ſea and land then followed between theſe contending parties; after which peace was concluded through the interference of the Perſian monarch, who at this time wanted to hire ſome part of the Greek forces for the reduction of his own revolted provinces.

But Greece was ſeldom long at peace; and for a wonder, the ſtates of Sparta and Athens were on the ſame ſide in a new war that now commenced. The Thebans and Eleans were their opponents, under the command of Epaminondas; and the next in authority to him was Pelopidas, who was at the head of 300 Theban youth, diſtinguiſhed by the name of the ſacred band. With only ſix thouſand men, Epaminondas ventured to engage 25,000 of the enemy at a place called Leuctra; and

having defeated them, he puſhed the war into the country of Lacedæmonia. With ſome reinforcements he now received, Epaminondas thought himſelf ſo formidable as to appear before Sparta. This was the firſt time, ſince the laws of Lycurgus, that that city was ever endangered; and having no walls, its inhabitants were ſeized with the utmoſt conſternation. Ageſilaus however defended it with ſo much ſkill, that Epaminondas was forced to retire. He however ravaged all its territories, and rebuilding Ithome the capital of Meſſene, reſtored it to the remnant of that unfortunate people: Not long after which a peace was concluded that was very ſatisfactory to the Thebans and their allies.

There were at this time great diſſentions in the kingdom of Macedon; and Thebes being applied to interpoſed its good offices. By their means the competitors for the crown were brought to terms, and Philip, the father of Alexander the Great, was ſent to Thebes as a hoſtage. In Theſſaly, the little

territory of Phærea was much about the ſame time enſlaved by a tyrant whoſe name was Alexander. Here alſo the Thebans interfered; but though they proved victorious, Pelopidas loſt his life in one of the engagements which took place.

After this the war between Sparta and Athens was renewed, and Epaminondas now entered Lacedæmonia with ſo much rapidity, that he was in the great ſquare of Sparta before he was effectually oppoſed. But Ageſilaus, who was little if at all inferior either in courage or ſkill to Epaminondas, again ſaved his capital: And purſuing him when he retired, an action was fought near Mantinæa. In it the Thebans were victorious. The loſs of Epaminondas however more than counterbalanced this advantage. His death was occaſioned by a javelin which penetrated his breaſt. But he lived till victory was certain; when rejoicing in the ſucceſs of his country, he pulled out the weapon, and immediately expired.

This brave and good man added to all the

qualities of a hero the milder virtues of philoſophy. He was remarkable for his knowledge, his ſilence, and his modeſty. Riches were neither ſought after nor acquired by him. And all his actions ſeem to have been governed by the love of virtue and his country. With him the conſequence of Thebes aroſe and ended. And peace with Sparta and Athens was almoſt inſtantly concluded.

The next war in which Athens was engaged was with the iſlands of Chios and Rhodes. The command of their fleet and troops were on this occaſion entruſted to Iphicrates, Chares, and Timotheus; the latter of whom was ſon to Conon. Nothing very material happened in this conteſt, but Timotheus was fined by the people either for a real or ſuppoſed miſconduct. As he died of grief he was probably innocent: And ſuch are the viciſſitudes of fortune, that his fine was laid out in repairing thoſe very walls which his father had ſo generouſly rebuilt.

About the year 355, Greece was diſturbed by a new war, which led to the moſt impor-

tant conſequences. The Phocians having plowed ſome lands belonging to Delphos, the Dorians, in whoſe poſſeſſion that oracle then was, complained to the Amphyctionic council. That aſſembly therefore fined the Phocians, who inſtead of paying it, ſeized the temple itſelf. In doing ſo they got immenſe riches, by means of which they engaged Sparta and Athens in their cauſe. On the other hand the Thebans, Locrians, and ſeveral petty ſtates, ſided with the Dorians: And the conteſt in this ſacred war was long and doubtful. But at length both were ſo much weakened and ſo nearly poiſed, that each applied for aid to Philip king of Macedon. It will therefore be in this place neceſſary to give you a conciſe view of the then ſtate of that kingdom.

When Philip was ſent as a hoſtage to Thebes, the crown of Macedon belonged to his brother Perdiccas: And all that is neceſſary as to the kings that preceded him is, that they had greatly extended their territories. When Perdiccas died his ſceptre de-

volved to Amyntas his infant ſon. And the reaſon of Philip's becoming a hoſtage then ceaſing, he was permitted to return to his own country. When he arrived there he found every thing in confuſion. There were not only two competitors who ſought to wreſt the crown from Amyntas, but Macedon was alſo threatened with attacks both from the Illyrians and Pæonians.

Philip at firſt took the management of theſe diſtracted affairs as guardian to his nephew Amyntas. In this office he ſoon diſplayed the great genius he poſſeſſed; and the Macedonians in a very ſhort time ſet aſide Amyntas, beſtowing on Philip the regal dignity. Whilſt at Thebes he had been placed in the houſe, and under the care of Epaminondas. Beſides other improvements which he received when a hoſtage, a knowledge of the Theban diſcipline was not the leaſt uſeful. And he not only introduced it to his own countrymen, but even improved upon it. That Macedonian phalanx, afterwards ſo famous, had its origin from Philip. This was

compoſed of 7,000 men drawn up ſixteen in depth: And each line was armed with pikes, ſo proportioned as to make one uniform and dreadful front of points that were next to irreſiſtible. Having in this and other inſtances new modelled the army, he led it againſt his enemies. And he very ſoon eſtabliſhed himſelf on that throne to which he had been ſo unexpectedly exalted.

Philip was only 22 years old when he returned from Thebes: But his abilities ſupplied the want of experience, and his ambition urged him to the greateſt undertakings. He extended his kingdom on all ſides, and in his conqueſts between the rivers Neſſus and Strymon he found ſome valuable mines of gold. Theſe he cauſed to be wrought with great attention, and afterwards gained as much, by a judicious diſtribution of this valuable metal, as he did by his arms.

Lycophron, the ſon of Alexander of Phærea, had at this time not only become tyrant of his native country, but likewiſe threatened the other petty ſtates of Teſſaly. To avert

this Philip was applied to: And after ſome ſtruggles Lycophron was beat, though aided by the Phocians. The independence of the Theſſalians being thus ſecured by Philip, they became his friends and allies. And he had no interruption to fear from this quarter, in the extenſive projects which he now began to have in view.

The next object of Philip was to chaſtiſe the Phocians for joining Lycophron; under which pretence he intended to get ſome footing in Greece. Hitherto the Athenians had been quiet ſpectators of the rapid progreſs made by the Macedonian monarch. This was owing to the principal men at Athens being ſecretly in the pay of Philip: And Demoſthenes, the celebrated orator, who had not taken bribes, in vain attempted to expoſe the latent deſigns of this ſubtle and ambitious prince. But when his intention of entering Greece with an army was made known Demoſthenes ſucceeded: And a body of Athenians took poſt in ſuch a manner as to effectually prevent the invaſion of Phocis.

Philip did not tamely ſubmit to this interpoſition. He fitted out a fleet, and ſeized the Athenian ſhips wherever they were met with. He alſo prepared for an attack on their colonies in Thrace and on the Helleſpont. But at the ſame time he amuſed them with negociations: And Demoſthenes in vain attempted to rouſe the corrupt and luxurious people to thoſe exertions which their ſituation required.

Whilſt Philip was thus extending his dominions, and adding to his power, the Greek ſtates were weakening each other by the ſacred war. And when at length they applied to Philip, he gave both ſides ſuch anſwers as they deemed favorable. By this conduct he entered Greece with a conſiderable army unoppoſed by either party: Which a very few troops could have prevented had they been poſted at the Streights of Thermopylæ.

Duplicity was no longer neceſſary to his purpoſes, and Philip declared for the Dorians. Entering Phocis, its inhabitants ſub-

mitted without a blow; and the Macedonian alledged that the part he took was in obedience to the former decree of the Amphyctionic council. In purſuance of this line of policy, he therefore now conſulted the Amphyctions as to the puniſhment they would have inflicted. This was ſo flattering an attention to that aſſembly, that they began with depriving Phocis of the right of ſending a delegate to it, and beſtowed that privilege on Macedon. They alſo honoured Philip by appointing him to preſide in the Pythian games. And thus he who was lately deemed a foreigner, was admitted as one of the principal Greek confederates.

The ſentence paſſed on the Phocians was, that all their fortifications ſhould be deſtroyed; nor were they to carry arms till all the money they had taken from the temple was repaid. Philip was appointed by the Amphyctions to carry this ſentence into execution, with the title of defender of Greece. Having done ſo, he wiſely contented himſelf with the progreſs he had made in influencing theſe

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confederate ſtates: And for the preſent he quietly returned into Macedon.

Athens however now ſaw that Philip was at the head of Grecian affairs, and that her own conſequence was no more. In the firſt tranſports of their rage they would have undertaken any thing the moſt deſperate: And Demoſthenes, who on other occaſions could hardly rouſe them to any enterpriſe, with difficulty reſtrained them. He however encouraged an underhand attack, and Diopithes, who had the chief command of the colonies in Thrace, was inſtructed to oppoſe any increaſe of Macedonian power in that quarter. This brought on new diſputes with Philip, till at length the colonies were openly eſpouſed by Athens.

There were at this time ſome trivial wars between the Meſſenians and Argives on one ſide, and the Spartans on the other: But they were attended with no material conſequences. Philip alſo made a fruitleſs attempt on the iſland of Eubœa, which from its ſituation he juſtly ſtiled the fetters of Greece. And hav-

ing chaſtiſed the Illyrians, who had invaded Macedon in his abſence, he laid ſiege to Perinthus, a city of Thrace.

In this danger the Perinthians applied to Athens, who diſpatched a conſiderable armament to their aid under the command of Chares. But this wretch was already ſo notorious for his avarice, cruelty, and extortions, that it was thought more adviſable by the citizens of Perinthus to take their chance without admitting him within their walls. When this was known at Athens, thoſe orators who were in the pay of Philip attempted to rouſe the paſſions of the people againſt the Perinthians. The honeſt eloquence of Phocion however counteracted all their allegations: And he convinced the Athenians that they were in fault when they ſent ſuch a man as Chares: After which he was himſelf appointed to defeat the deſigns of Philip.

Phocion was not only a brave general and able orator, but alſo a ſtrictly honeſt man. Though never tainted with bribes, he had generally oppoſed any war with Macedon,

becauſe he knew his corrupt countrymen were unequal to the conteſt. But being now appointed againſt Philip he exerted himſelf to the utmoſt. And being aided by the Perſians, who did not like the riſing power of the Macedonians, he not only relieved Perinthus, but obliged Philip to abandon his deſigns on the Thracian Cherſoneſus.

Whilſt Philip was before Perinthus, Macedon was invaded by a people called the Medari, and Alexander, then only ſixteen, gave a very early diſplay of his courage and abilities. For taking the field againſt them, he not only defeated them, but took their city and its ſmall territory. On his father quitting Thrace, he accompanied him to chaſtiſe a Scythian prince that had likewiſe attacked a part of his kingdom. During this expedition Philip had his horſe killed in an action with the Triboeli, and would have loſt his own life had not Alexander protected him with his ſhield till he was remounted: After which they were compleatly victorious.

The Locrians having plowed ſome lands

belonging to Delphos, a complaint was made to the Amphyctions. They accordingly ordered a part of their body to ſee the grievance redreſſed: But the Locrians, inſtead of ſubmitting, forced the deputation to retire. This highly irritated the council; and Æſchines, an orator from Athens, but privately paid by the Macedonian king, thereupon propoſed, that Philip ſhould be again ordered to execute their ſentence. And by a proper recapitulation of his former conduct, the Amphyctions immediately concurred in this opinion.

Philip, who had been long preparing to controul Greece, moſt joyfully received this order. But he no ſooner paſſed the Streights of Thermopylæ with a powerful army, than he threw off the maſk. All Greece was in conſternation: And the Delphic oracle having declared, that whoever oppoſed Philip would be deſtroyed, Demoſthenes could not help exclaiming that even Pythia Philipized.

The Thebans and ſome other cities, however, united with Athens in a ſtruggle for li-

berty. The contending armies met at Chæronea, the Greeks being commanded by Chares and Lyſicles, two Athenian Generals. But though the battle was at firſt doubtful, the judgment of Philip at length decided the day. And the courage of Alexander, now only ſeventeen, not a little contributed to this important victory.

Philip in no action of his life was greater than in his conduct after this battle. His priſoners were treated with the utmoſt kindneſs, and not only diſmiſſed without ranſom, but had their baggage reſtored. It is true this was politic as well as generous, for he gained by it many friends, and ſoftened the reſentment of ſuch as continued his enemies. He was now in fact the lawgiver to Greece, thoſe he had not ſubdued by arms being governed by his gold. Contented however with the reality of power, he was ſatisfied with the name of Generaliſſimo of Greece. And civil diſſentions being ended by his ſucceſsful ambition, he reſolved to bend the

whole force of Greece and Macedon againſt the Perſian empire.

To all outward appearances, Philip was at this time the happieſt of mortals. But the fact was far otherwiſe, and he ſuffered ſeverely from domeſtic diſcord. His wife Olympias, the mother of Alexander, was divorced for infidelity; after which he married Cleopatra, the niece of Attalus, one of his generals. Diſputes then aroſe between Alexander and his father, touching the ſucceſſion. But they were at length ended by Philip's aſſuring him, the crown ſhould be his. At the ſame time deſiring him to juſtify by his conduct, that preference he was reſolved to beſtow on him.

Olympias being ſiſter to Alexander, King of Epirus, Philip dreaded her influence during his abſence, as Macedonia was ſo near her brother's territories. To ſecure his friendſhip therefore, he offered the Epirean Monarch a daughter in marriage. This was accepted, and the moſt magnificent entertainments were reſolved on by Philip, at once to

honor theſe nuptials, and alſo to bid adieu to the different ambaſſadors from Greece. For part of the forces were already tranſported to Aſia-Minor, and he was juſt ready to paſs with the remainder.

The city of Ægæ was the place appointed for theſe exhibitions. Every ſtate of Greece eagerly paid their compliments; and the ambaſſadors from Athens itſelf preſented him with a crown of gold; aſſuring him, that no enemy of his ſhould ever find refuge in their city. All this adulation ſeems to have made Philip fearful of being too much elated: And a page, by his orders, every morning reminded him that he was mortal. But this he, at leaſt for a ſhort time, ſoon after forgot; and in that very moment he was ſnatched into eternity.

Amongſt other amuſements of the firſt day, a play was exhibited. It was performed under the direction of Neoptolemus, an Athenian, and was highly acceptable to the King, as it repreſented him the conqueror of Aſia. The next day there were to be

great exhibitions in the theatre. They accordingly began with a moſt ſplendid proceſſion of the twelve great gods of Greece; and after their images, was one to Philip himſelf, decorated in the ſame manner, and paid the ſame veneration to by the ſurrounding people. Next came Philip in perſon, dreſſed in a white robe, and a crown upon his head. In order to be the more conſpicuous, no perſon was allowed to walk near him. But when he reached the door of the theatre, a man, named Pauſanias, ruſhed upon him, and ſtabbed him to the heart. Thus periſhed Philip, in the ſight of that multitude before whom he had aſſumed, and who themſelves had ſo lately paid him the honors of a God.

Pauſanias was diſpatched by ſeveral of the chief officers, before he could reach a horſe that was prepared for him; and therefore he made no diſcovery, as to the true cauſe of this aſſaſſination. Alexander and his mother were not quite free from ſuſpicion; though Alexander exerted himſelf to find out and puniſh all

who were ſuppoſed to be concerned. He alſo alledged, and with ſome probability, that Darius was at the bottom of it, in order to avert the meditated attack upon Perſia. Some authors think, Pauſanias acted entirely from himſelf. And certain it is, that Philip had given him great cauſe of complaint, by refuſing him juſtice in a caſe, wherein Attalus had moſt grievouſly offended him. But the real ſource of this murder ſtill remains a ſubject of conjecture.

Philip was a great, but not a good man. He poſſeſſed the art of diſtinguiſhing the true characters and abilities of men in the higheſt degree; and he was never miſtaken either as to his miniſters or generals. In return, he not only rewarded their ſervices, but took every occaſion of complimenting them, on whatever perfection they poſſeſſed: and by ſuch attentions he repaid the paſt, and at the ſame time ſecured their future fidelity. But all his actions proceeded from policy, and the gratification of an unbounded ambition. He held the moſt ſolemn engagements as nothing;

and is ſaid to have openly declared, that children were amuſed with toys, and men with oaths. With theſe ſentiments, he practiſed every art and duplicity to gain his ends; and both his gold and arms were employed, without any regard to the juſtice or injuſtice of what he had undertaken. His own country was however highly indebted to him; and it was from the exertions of Philip, that Alexander was able to erect the Macedonian empire.

Philip was cut off in the 47th year of his life, and 24th of his reign. By Olympias, he had a daughter named Cleopatra, beſides his ſucceſſor named Alexander. His ſon Caranus, and his daughter Europa, were by his wife Cleopatra. And by other women he had two more daughters, and one ſon, who was named Aridæus.

Alexander was only 20 years old when he aſcended the throne of Macedon. He had, however, already diſplayed, not only courage but conduct in the field; and from his infancy, he diſcovered an unbounded ambition.

Philip perceiving the vaſt genius of his ſon, provided the ableſt preceptors he could meet with. Amongſt theſe was Ariſtotle, the diſciple of Plato, who was highly celebrated for his knowledge: And by ſuch an education, the Macedonians had every thing to hope from their young and warlike King.

The character of Alexander was, however, as yet but little underſtood at Athens. When the news of Philip's death arrived there, Demoſthenes gave himſelf up to the moſt extravagant joy. He conceived the liberties of Greece reſtored; and in his harangues, he ſpoke of Alexander as a giddy boy, unworthy of Empire. Nay, to compleat his folly, he perſuaded the Athenians to offer ſacrifices to the gods; at the ſame time dedicating a crown to Pauſanias, the murderer of Philip. Darius was likewiſe ſo infatuated, as to conſider the invaſion of his kingdom at an end; continuing in a ſtate of inaction, and miſtaken ſecurity.

Several of the ſtates adjoining Macedon, in like manner conſidered the death of Philip

as a ſignal for regaining whatever they had loſt. But Alexander ſoon convinced them, he was at leaſt equal to his father: And in a ſhort time he forced them to the ſame ſubmiſſive ſtate they had before experienced. In the wars that firſt took place, it was however reported, that Alexander was ſlain; on which, by the advice of Demoſthenes, the Athenians had recourſe to arms. The Thebans did the ſame, maſſacring the two principal officers of a Macedonian garriſon, which Philip had left in their citadel, after the battle of Chæronea. When this was told to Alexander, he inſtantly ſet out for Greece; having juſt put an end to the troubles nearer to Macedon. And the Thebans did not know he was alive, till they ſaw him in perſon before their city. Though they had ſurprized and ſlain the two principal officers, the Macedonian garriſon were ſtill in poſſeſſion of the citadel; and after an obſtinate defence, the city was taken. A dreadful ſlaughter thereupon took place, and moſt of thoſe who eſcaped it, were ſold into captivi-

ty. From this general puniſhment, none were exempted except the poſterity of Pindar, the families of the Prieſts, and thoſe who had oppoſed the revolt. Thebes itſelf was then levelled to the ground; the houſe which had been Pindar's, being alone left ſtanding. The memory of that poet was thus reſpected, on account of his having wrote a poem in honor of a former King of Macedon.

Alexander having heard of Demoſthenes's contemptuous expreſſions, declared he would ſhow him, before the walls of Athens, that he was a man. But that city, terrified at the fate of Thebes, did not wait for his approach: and their ambaſſadors found means to deprecate the wrath of the conqueror.

Every thing being now quiet in Macedon and Greece, and Alexander being alſo acknowledged the Generaliſſimo of all, he met the deputies from the different ſtates at the city of Corinth. Here the final arrangement of the Perſian war was ſettled. And all the great men of Greeee, together with thoſe who were diſtinguiſhed in any branch of

knowledge, paid their court to Alexander. Diogenes, a Cynick Philoſopher of theſe times, who reſided in the ſuburbs of Corinth, did not however take any notice of the King. And as he was much talked of, Alexander had the curioſity to ſee him. The wants of Diogenes were few or none, for he lived in a hovel, eat and drank juſt enough to ſupport life, and wore the meaneſt apparel. When Alexander viſited him, he was found at the door of his hut, baſking in the heat of the ſun; and the King after informing him who he was, requeſted to know in what he could be ſerviceable? The Cynic replied, in nothing, but ſtanding a little out of his ſunſhine. The attending courtiers expreſſed great contempt at ſuch an anſwer; but the King checked ſuch obſervations, by declaring, that if he was not Alexander, he would wiſh to be Diogenes.

It is more than probable, that the ſame motives actuated both. Both ſought to be diſtinguiſhed amongſt men. Alexander aimed at being maſter of the world, conceiving

he had the means to accompliſh it. Diogenes, having no ſuch proſpect, attempted even to outdo this ambitious Monarch. For he affected to deſpiſe all that that world contained, which the other was ſo anxious to ſubdue. The ambition of Diogenes was however far preferable to that of Alexander; for it fell on himſelf alone; whilſt that of the Macedonian was gratified by the loſs of life and happineſs to millions of mankind.

From Corinth Alexander went to conſult the Delphic Oracle. It was not at the time appointed for reſponſes, and therefore the Pythoneſs refuſed to anſwer his enquiries. But Alexander drawing her by force into the temple, ſhe exclaimed,—My ſon, thou art invincible!—And Alexander no ſooner heard theſe words, than he retired, declaring, he wanted no other Oracle.

Having gratified his friends, with a very laviſh diſtribution of his revenues and poſſeſſions, he now prepared for his Perſian expedition. The care of Macedon and Greece was entruſted to Antipater, the faithful and

favorite miniſter of Philip. And then giving a laſt entertainment to his friends in Europe, and ſacrificing at the ſame time to the gods, he ſet ſail for Aſia. The conſequences of which I have already related.

During the conteſt for the Perſian crown, the Thracians gave ſome diſturbance; and whilſt Antipater was chaſtiſing them, a revolt took place in Greece. This was fomented by the gold of Darius; and Agis, one of the Lacedemonian Kings, ſoon found himſelf at the head of 22,000 foot and 2,000 horſe. But Antipater did not give time for an addition to this army, inſtantly marching againſt it, at the head of 40,000 men. A battle was the conſequence, in which Agis, after the moſt heroic exertions, was defeated and ſlain. And the power of Alexander was then more firmly eſtabliſhed than ever, over the cities and kingdoms of Greece.

The Illyrians, Pæonians, and other ſtates that were now riſing in the neighbourhood of Macedon, have nothing for the hiſtorian.

Theſſaly was divided into a number of ſmall ſtates that generally acted in concert. On the contrary, the little nations into which Thrace was ſplit, were always at enmity with each other; and of theſe, the Odryſæ was the moſt conſiderable.

The Thracians were a very ſavage and fierce people: they wept at the birth of children, and rejoiced when any perſon died. A plurality of wives was allowed, and on the huſband's death, ſhe who loved him beſt put an end to her life, and was interred with his remains; and ſuch is the force of cuſtom, that this honor was generally contended for, being decided by the relations of the deceaſed. Their deities and religion were nearly the ſame as in Greece; and having nothing more to add of this part of the globe, I ſhall here put an end to my preſent letter.

THIRD LETTER.

SICILY alone of all the iſlands, is in this æra deſerving of attention. And of its ſtates there was none but Syracuſe, that had arrived to any degree of conſequence. In it a popular government firſt prevailed; till at length, Gelon by his virtues and abilities was raiſed to the ſupreme power. The Carthaginians, during his adminiſtration of affairs, invaded Sicily with a prodigious armament. This happened about the year 480, it being in conſequence of a treaty with Xerxes king of Perſia, who wiſhed to prevent all ſuccours to the Greeks from thoſe colonies which had been planted in this quarter.

By the wiſe and courageous conduct of Gelon, he took or deſtroyed the whole of the Carthaginian fleet and army. A peace was the conſequence, which proved both profitable and honourable: 1000 talents

were paid to him for the expences he had ſuſtained; beſides a crown of gold which was preſented to his queen; and one article of this treaty peculiarly marks his humanity: for it being a cuſtom to ſacrifice men to the deities of Carthage, he bound them to abſtain from ſo infamous a practice.

Gelon had poſſeſſed himſelf of the ſupreme authority, in order to reſcue his country from foreign and domeſtic enemies. Having accompliſhed this, he diſbanded his forces; laid aſide the enſign of royalty; and in the garb of a private citizen, met the people, whom he had cauſed to be aſſembled. He then recounted to them the uſe he had made of the ſceptre, and his motives for aſſuming it; at the ſame time ſubmitting himſelf to whatever ſentence they thought proper. Struck with ſuch magnanimity, they with one voice called him to reaſſume the regal dignity; at the ſame time declaring it hereditary in his family;

and a ſtatue was erected, commemorating his appearance as a private citizen.

The reſt of Gelon's life was devoted to the arts of peace. He oppoſed luxury, encouraged agriculture and wholeſome labour, and enjoined the practice of every virtue. His example kept pace with his precepts; and dying about the year 472, his afflicted ſubjects honored him as a demi god, at the ſame time raiſing a moſt ſuperb ſepulchre to his memory.

He was ſucceeded by his brother Hiero, who during a ſhort reign added conſiderably to the territories of Syracuſe. At his death, the crown devolved on Thraſybulus, another brother of Gelon's; but proving a cruel tyrant, the popular government was reſtored. Several ambitious citizens, though unſucceſsfully, then attempted the ſovereignty; and to prevent the completion of ſuch deſigns, the petaliſm was inſtituted; which only varied from the Oſtraciſm at Athens, in the name being written on the

leaf of a tree. This law was however of very ſhort duration.

The Syracuſeans were daily increaſing in power; and it was to oppoſe their encroachments that ſome other cities of Sicily applied to Athens for aid. When Nicias and the Athenian forces were deſtroyed, the like application was made to Carthage. That riſing power gladly interfered, and the conteſt was attended with various ſucceſs. But during the conteſt Dionyſius, a citizen of Syracuſe, found means to uſurp the ſupreme power.

The great object of Dionyſius was to ſecure his authority: he therefore made peace with Carthage, allowing her to retain what ſhe then poſſeſſed in Sicily, together with ſome new conceſſions. The other ſtates of the iſland were to remain unmoleſted; and Syracuſe with its territories was confirmed to Dionyſius. New wars however took place, which ended in ſimilar treaties. And Dionyſius alſo made ſome ſucceſsful deſcents on the coaſts of Italy.

Being at length free from military enterprises, the Sicilian tyrant devoted himself to poetic compoſition. It was a part of the conteſts which at this time took place in the Olympic Games: and having finiſhed two pieces, he ſent them to be ſubmitted for the prize. But inſtead of applauſe, they were hiſſed and treated with contempt. This brought on a melancholy habit, and he indulged the reſentment which he felt, by baniſhing or putting to death the moſt intimate of his friends. From this ſtate of mind he was rouſed by freſh wars with the Carthaginians, followed by treaties equally perfidious on the part of both; which however made no material change in the affairs of Sicily.

Dionyſius ſtill retained his deſire of poetic fame; and having compoſed a tragedy, it was offered for the prize at Athens. His joy was exceſſive when he received the news of having obtained it. He therefore ſacrificed to the gods; at the ſame time favouring the citizens of Syracuſe with a

moſt magnificent entertainment: but at it, he indulged ſo freely as to bring on a ſevere diſorder, from which he never recovered. And as ſome ſay, he was helped out of the world by a ſleeping draught, adminiſtered by his favourite queen.

Dionyſius was a bloody and relentleſs tyrant. He was ſo conſcious of the deteſtation he was held in, as not to admit his greateſt favourites till they were examined: and not chooſing to truſt a Syracuſean, his guards were all compoſed of mercenary ſtrangers. When he harangued the people, he did it from an high tower. Having put to death his barber, hearing he had joked of holding his razor to the king's throat, he for a time was ſhaved by his daughters. But not chooſing even to truſt them, he latterly performed that operation on himſelf: and when ever he viſited his wives, their apartments were firſt ſearched. The miſerable ſtate in which he thus lived, was truly repreſented by himſelf, in his treatment of Damocles, one of his courtiers. Damocles had ſaid to him, that he muſt be the happieſt of men. Dionyſius ſoon after invited him

to a feaſt, at which Damocles eat and drank moſt deliciouſly, and was ſerved with royal magnificence. At length he perceived a naked ſword ſuſpended from the ceiling by a ſingle horſe hair directly over him; on which all his ſatisfaction vaniſhed, and he deemed himſelf happy in being permitted to retire. Yet ſuch was the ſituation in fact, that this guilty and ambitious Syracuſean tyrant had made choice of.

Dionyſius the younger was little better than his father, whom he ſucceeded at Syracuſe. He gave himſelf up to every kind of debauchery, till Dion, who was nearly connected to him, for a ſhort time found means to reſtrain him. Plato, the diſciple of Socrates, was prevailed on to become a preceptor to Dionyſius, though the late tyrant had behaved moſt infamouſly to that celebrated philoſopher. At firſt Dionyſius ſeemed to have a reliſh for learning, and ſome taſte for virtuous enjoyments. His vicious courtiers however found means to get Dion baniſhed; ſoon after which Plato retired; and Dionyſius returned with redoubled ardour, to all his irregularities.

Dion, who took ſhelter in Athens, for ſome time was permitted to enjoy the profits of his eſtates. But his fame, both for wiſdom and virtue, reaching the tyrant of Syracuſe, his property was confiſcated. A ſtill greater injury was then done him, for Dionyſius obliged his wife, who was the king's half ſiſter, to marry another. Thus provoked, Dion reſolved to revenge himſelf, and knowing he was beloved at Syracuſe, he ventured to Sicily with only 800 choſen followers. As he expected, the chief citizens immediately revolted from Dionyſius, who ſhut himſelf up in the citadel. But the multitude at Syracuſe were as fickle as other popular aſſemblies: and Heraclides one of their citizens, ſo totally turned them from Dion, that he would have loſt his life, had not his own 800 followers, borne him in ſafety from their city. And both them and Dion were moſt hoſpitably received in the city of Leontini.

Heraclides was now the confidential man in Syracuſe: he however conducted himſelf ſo ill, that the troops of Dionyſius, by their ſallies from the citadel deſtroyed vaſt num-

bers of the people, and threatened the total deſtruction of the city. Taught by misfortune, they then ſent to implore the return of him they would have ſo lately deſtroyed; and Dion, ſuperior to reſentment, haſtened to their relief. The troops of the tyrant were thereupon drove back to their citadel, which they ſoon ſurrendered, obtaining a conveyance to Italy, where Dionyſius had before retired.

The wife of Dion had been detained in the citadel, and was now reſtored to her firſt huſband. He was convinced compulſion, and not choice, had made her the property of another, and therefore received her with the utmoſt tenderneſs. He alſo ſhewed the greatneſs of his mind by becoming a mere private citizen the moment the enemy was ſubdued. He however from principle leaned to the Ariſtocracy; and Heraclides, whom he had generouſly pardoned, again plotted againſt him; under pretence of preferring a Democracy. In this ſituation Dion yielded to the ſolicitations of falſe or miſtaken friends, and conſented to the murder of Heraclides: but from that mo-

ment he loſt his peace of mind. No caſuiſtry could reconcile ſuch an act to his feelings. All his ſubſequent days were attended with the deepeſt remorſe, and at length he was himſelf aſſaſſinated by a citizen whoſe name was Calippus. Calippus did this from conceiving Dion an invincible obſtacle to his ſeizing on the ſovereignty; he however failed in his purpoſe, and periſhed in the attempt; but in the diſtractions that followed Dionyſius found means to reaſſume the tyranny.

Misfortune had not rectified the faults of Dionyſius. His government became as intolerable as ever; and the chief citizens thereupon applied for ſuccour to Icetas the king or tyrant of Leontini. Finding however that Icetas was dealing treacherouſly, being ſecretly connected with Carthage; an application was made to Corinth, the mother ſtate; and a conſiderable force was ordered under the conduct of Timoleon. Timelon's diſlike to tyranny was ſo great, that he ſlew his own brother for aiming at the ſupreme power in Corinth. And he had mourned this patriotic fratricide in ſo-

litude for twenty years, when he was thus choſen to give freedom to Syracuſe.

Having effected a landing in Sicily, Timoleon had many conteſts with the Carthaginians, Icetas and Dionyſius before he accompliſhed the object of his expedition. But at length the tyrant relinquiſhed Syracuſe, on the terms of conveying his wealth to Corinth; with the liberty of reſiding there without moleſtation.

No ſooner were the Syracuſeans emancipated, than Timoleon reſolved to do the ſame ſervice to the other cities of Sicily. Petty tyrants had ſtarted up in moſt of them; but the people every where declaring for their deliverer, they were in a very ſhort time either expelled or put to death. And after this ſervice Timoleon bent all his thoughts to the expulſion of the Carthaginians, who had at this period very conſiderable ſettlements in the iſland of Sicily.

To prevent the completion of this ſcheme, 70,000 men took the field on the part of Carthage. Timoleon with only 7,000 men went in queſt of them, and even of theſe, 1000 deſerted him, being

terrified at the fearful odds they were to encounter. Timoleon was not however to be intimidated, and advancing with his 6000, he boldly engaged his numerous opponents. A dreadful ſtorm of thunder and lightning juſt then drove in the face of the enemy; and what with this advantage, and the valour of his troops, he gained a deciſive victory. The Carthaginian camp fell into his hands, wherein he found vaſt riches; and having amply rewarded the bravery of thoſe ſoldiers who had continued faithful; he contented himſelf with forcing thoſe who had left him, to abandon the iſland of Sicily.

After a few more conflicts with the Carthaginians and the depoſed tyrants, peace was concluded on theſe terms: That all the Greek cities of Sicily ſhould be free; that every perſon who choſe to quit the Carthaginian ſettlements, ſhould have leave to do ſo, and alſo to carry away their effects; and that Carthage ſhould never aid any tyrants that might ariſe in this quarter. Liberty and peace being thus eſtabliſhed throughout the iſland, Timoleon reſigned all authority,

and became a private citizen of Syracuſe.

But the Syracuſeans, truly ſenſible of his merits, provided him with a magnificent country reſidence; and alſo with the beſt houſe in their city. The greateſt reſpect and honors were ſhewn him whenever he appeared. He was alſo conſulted in every thing of conſequence, during the eight years which he ſurvived this treaty with Carthage; and when he died they gave him a moſt ſumptuous funeral, at the ſame time inſtituting annual ſports to his memory.

The death of Timoleon happened very near the time that Darius fell by the treachery of Beſſus; ſo that I ſhall here drop the Sicilian hiſtory, and proceed to that of Carthage. During this æra the Carthaginians made very rapid ſtrides to power. Beſides their acquiſitions in Sicily, and their extenſion of territory in Africa, the iſlands of Sardinia, Corſica, Majorca, Minorca, and Ivica, acknowledged their juriſdiction. They had likewiſe eſtabliſhed many colonies in Spain; and their fleet

was at this time equal, if not ſuperior, to any in the world. About the year 508 commerce was conſidered by them in a very extenſive point of view. We find them at that time making a treaty with Rome, in which the rights of navigation were particularly attended to. And a further one of the ſame nature took place towards the end of my preſent æra.

The form of government which ſucceeded the regal one at Carthage is not clearly aſcertained; but its general features were theſe: They had two ſuffetes or annual magiſtrates. A ſenate. And an aſſembly of the people. The number of ſenators is obſcure; but if all were unanimous on any queſtion it became the law. If not, the ſubject in diſpute was laid before the people, whoſe deciſion was final. One hundred and four were choſen from the ſenate to aſſiſt the ſuffetes as a council: And out of that council five were elected to judge in civil and criminal affairs. Theſe judges filled up all vacancies in their own body, and alſo in the council. But vacancies in the ſenate could only be ſupplied by the votes of the people. And beſides the

diſtinctions I have mentioned, the Carthaginians had alſo officers who anſwered to the queſtors and cenſors of Rome.

The kingdom of Cyrene was involved in ſeveral diſputes with Carthage touching boundaries; but they were all terminated before the times of Alexander. This country had alſo ſhaken off the regal power, eſtabliſhing a Democracy upon its ruins. The particulars of their laws and legiſlature are however unknown: And I ſhall now proceed to Rome and the reſt of Italy.

FOURTH LETTER.

THE conduct of Tarquin the younger was ſuited to the means by which he gained the Roman crown. Numbers of the worthieſt citizens were aſſaſſinated by his orders, and ſtill more were obliged to ſeek their ſafety in flight. By means of a mercenary army he alſo kept the people from aſſembling; and his tyranny appeared to be moſt firmly eſtabliſhed.

In order to add to his ſecurity he gained over Octavius Mamilius, a principal man a-

mongſt the Latins, by giving him a daughter in marriage: And through his means Tarquin was raiſed both to the title and authority of general over the Latine forces. He alſo entered into different treaties with the neighbouring ſtates; proving ſucceſsful in ſeveral wars which he had undertaken. But occaſion was only wanting to call forth the Roman ſpirit; and a dreadful tranſaction now happened, which ended in the expulſion of Tarquin.

Collatinus, the kinſman of Tarquin, had a beautiful wife whoſe name was Lucretia. Her charms had made an impreſſion on Sextus one of the king's ſons, and he meditated only how he might gratify his paſſion. For this purpoſe he viſited her whilſt Collatinus was from home; and was entertained as the relation of her huſband. But in the dead of night he entered the chamber of Lucretia. She at firſt reſiſted his purpoſe, though he threatened her with inſtant death, till he added that he would not only kill her, but alſo a ſlave whom he would lay beſide her, and then declare that he had caught them in adultery. In this dreadful dilemma the

love of fame prevailed. She however reſolved not to ſurvive it, and Sextus was no ſooner gone than ſhe inſtantly ſent for her huſband and her father. They ſoon attended, accompanied by Publius Valerius, and Lucius Junius Brutus. She then related the fatal ſtory, and confirmed its truth by plunging a dagger to her heart.

Brutus, being of high extraction, had ſaved his life by counterfeiting madneſs; and he had done it ſo effectually as to prevent all ſuſpicion in the Tarquins. But now throwing off the maſk, he drew the bloody dagger fom Lucretia's breaſt, making thoſe who were preſent ſwear they would revenge her. Tarquin was at this time beſieging a city of the Rutuli. They therefore publicly expoſed the body in the city of Rome. And the dreadful tale which accompanied it rouſed the people almoſt to madneſs. From the city it ſpread to the camp, where the tyrant and his family ſoon found that flight alone could give them hopes of ſafety. And having thus got rid of the Tarquins, the people in full aſſembly took a ſolemn oath that they would never ſuffer another king at Rome.

The Sybilline oracles were before this purchaſed by Tarquin, and depoſited in a vault beneath the Capitol. The Sybils were ſuppoſed to be young women endued with a prophetic ſpirit, who put down their knowledge of futurity in Greek verſes. Theſe predictions were chiefly relative to Rome, and two perſons were appointed to take care of them; as alſo to conſult them in all public calamities. And we ſhall hereafter find them in high repute amongſt the Romans.

It was in the year 508 that Tarquin's expulſion took place. To ſupply the office of a king, two annual magiſtrates called conſuls were elected by the people. They preſided over the civil and military affairs; and a rex ſacrorum, whoſe office was for life, had the direction of religious inſtitutions. So that in fact no alteration was now made, but a diviſion and limitation of the power before veſted in the king.

Notwithſtanding the vices of the Tarquins they had many adherents amongſt the Roman youth, and a conſpiracy for their reſtoration was at this time detected. Brutus,

who was one of the firſt conſuls, had the misfortune to find two of his own ſons brought before him for this offence. He ſentenced them to die; and though ſtrongly ſolicited to change it into baniſhment, the firmneſs of the conſul prevailed over the feelings of the man; for they were whipt and beheaded by the lictors even in his preſence. He then for a ſhort time left the tribunal to indulge the ſorrows of a father. And returning to it he inſiſted that the ſame ſeverity ſhould be exerciſed on the reſt of the conſpirators.

Tarquinius Collatinus, the huſband of Lucretia, and colleague of Brutus, had not only endeavoured to ſpare ſome near connexions who had been in the conſpiracy, but alſo ſhewed ſome other ſentiments favorable to Tarquin. Brutus therefore cauſed him to be depoſed and baniſhed. To ſhow however that it was from no perſonal motive, he gave him five talents of his own money, and alſo procured him twenty from the ſtate. After which P. Valerius was elected to the vacant conſulſhip.

Tarquin was able to raiſe a conſiderable army in Hetruria, with which he approached

towards Rome. The conſuls therefore took the field, and a dreadful conflict enſued. But though Brutus fell, victory declared for the Romans. And Tarquin, having loſt a great part of his army, was forced to retire.

Valerius having pronounced the funeral oration over his colleague, who was honored with a moſt magnificent funeral, obtained ſome new laws and regulations. An appeal was inſtituted from the judgment of the conſuls to the people. It was alſo enacted, that any man might kill whoever aſpired to the ſovereignty; but then he muſt prove to the people, that the deceaſed actually did ſo, otherwiſe it was murder. All public money from henceforth was to be lodged in the temple of Saturn: And two new annual officers, called Quæſtors, were to ſuperintend the treaſury. He alſo got it decreed, that all orders of the Conſuls muſt be inſtantly obeyed, under a ſmall penalty. And old widows and men, who had no children, were exempted from public tribute. Valerius, by his ſervices and laws, became greatly beloved by the people; and he was on that account honored with the name of Poplicola.

Porcena, a King of Hetruria, now undertook the cauſe of Tarquin, and would have taken Rome, but for the gallant conduct of Horatius Cocles. This valiant Roman defended a narrow paſs, till a bridge over the Tiber was demoliſhed. Having thereby ſaved the city, he threw himſelf into the river, and likewiſe ſecured his own ſafety. A ſtatue of braſs was then erected to him, and he got as much land as a plough could ſurround in one day.

But Porcena did not yet relinquiſh his enterprize, and Rome was on the point of being ſtarved into compliance. To avert this, a young Roman, named Mucius Cordas, diſguiſed himſelf as an Hetrurian, and miſtaking the ſecretary of Porcena for the King, he ſtabbed him in the act of adminiſtering juſtice to the people. Being ſeized, Mucius told the King, that a number of other Romans had pledged themſelves to rid their country of ſuch an enemy. And thruſting his hand into a pan of coals, he ſhewed him his own fortitude, for he ſuffered it to be conſumed without wincing. The league mentioned by Mucius was entirely his own inven-

tion; but it had the deſired effect, when conſidered with Mucius's late heroiſm. And Porcena abandoned the intereſts of Tarquin, at the ſame time concluding a peace with the Romans.

There were ſeveral trivial attempts ſubſequent to this, for the reſtoration of Tarquin. At length a very formidable one took place, no leſs than 24 Latin cities having combined for that purpoſe. In this ſituation, the Romans thought it adviſeable to give abſolute power to a ſingle perſon, under the name of Dictator. T. Lartius was raiſed to this high office, and as twelve Lictors had preceded each Conſul, the whole 24 attended on him. He might reſign his power at any time, but could not hold it longer than ſix months. And whoever he named General of the horſe, had the ſecond authority during his continuance in office.

By the exertions of Lartius, the Latins for the preſent deſiſted; though they ſoon renewed their attempt. Aulus Poſthumius was then made Dictator, and Tarquin received a final overthrow, for he never more diſturbed the peace of Rome. In this battle Sex-

tus, who had occaſioned his father's expulſion, was ſlain, as was alſo his brother: and Mamilius, the ſon in law of Tarquin, likewiſe loſt his life on the ſame occaſion.

Domeſtic diſſentions immediately followed this conqueſt of a foreign enemy. The creditors had a right to enſlave their debtors, and to treat them with the greateſt cruelty. This calamity chiefly fell on the lower orders; and having in vain attempted a conſtitutional relief, they reſolved, on the next occaſion, to refuſe their military ſervice. They did ſo, in a war which now took place with the Volſci. And the ſenate was forced to decree, that the debtors ſhould not remain at the mercy of the creditors. On which the neceſſary levies were immediately accompliſhed.

It ſhould ſeem, that the regulation of ſerving by centuries was already broke through; for otherwiſe the loweſt claſs would have been of no conſequence in the formation of an army. But we ſhall find the wiſe regulations of Servius Tullius infringed in various inſtances. And the conſequence of it, was a

perpetual animoſity amongſt the higher and lower orders of the Roman people.

The diſpute with the Volſci was no ſooner ended, than the Senate, at the inſtigation of Appius Claudius, abolutely refuſed to carry their decree, as to the debtors, into execution. This very juſtly irritated the people, and a new war happening, they again refuſed to ſerve. However, Manius Valerius being made Dictator, promiſed to obtain relief of the Senate. And being highly popular, and the brother of Poplicola, they relied on his integrity. Proving ſucceſsful, his ſervices were deemed ſo great, that he was voted a triumph, and honored with a curule chair to ſee the public ſports; which was alſo made hereditary. He then demanded of the Senate to fulfil his promiſe to the people. This they abſolutely refuſed; on which Valerius, having firſt reſigned the Dictatorſhip, aſſembled the people. He then plainly told them, why he could not keep his word; at the ſame time ſubmitting himſelf to their diſcretion. Senſible of his good wiſhes, they conducted him home with the higheſt applauſe. But they immediately marched to the ſacred

mount, under the conduct of Cecinius Bellutus; and from thence they threatened the Senate with deſtruction.

Before this the Senators had behaved with treachery and meanneſs; and now terrified beyond meaſure, they were forced to grant far more than would have fulfilled their original decree. All the debts then exiſting were aboliſhed: and the people demanded and obtained five new officers, under the name of Tribunes of the people. They were to ſee the rights of the citizens at large preſerved from violation. No new law could be made without their concurrence; and their perſons were voted ſacred. This important alteration, in the Roman conſtitution, took place about the year 488; and two Plebeian Ædiles were at the ſame time inſtituted, who were to obey ſuch orders as they received from the Tribunes.

Soon after this compromiſe, the Conſul Poſthumius Cominius led an army againſt the Volſci. He proved ſucceſsful, making himſelf maſter of Corioli, their chief city: And Caius Marcius, a young Patrician, having particularly ſignalized himſelf, was voted a tenth

part of the ſpoil, with the additional name of Coriolanus. Already high in the eſteem of the army, he increaſed it, by refuſing the riches decreed him. By further military ſervices, he alſo added to the reputation he was already held in at Rome. But a proud overbearing ſpirit was the characteriſtic of Caius Marcius; nor could he endure the power of the Plebeian Tribunes. Indeed they ſtudied to humble the Patrician order: and on one occaſion, Coriolanus got ſo angry in a public aſſembly of the people, as to abuſe both them and their Tribunes. In return, the Tribunes ordered him to be put to death: but for the preſent, he was reſcued by the Patricians. They were not however able to avert a public trial: and in order to ſecure his condemnation, the Tribunes took the votes of the citizens by tribes, and not by centuries; in conſequence of which, he was baniſhed from his native country.

Coriolanus, on leaving Rome, took the bold reſolution of truſting himſelf to Tullus Aufidius, the General of the Volſcians. He was not miſtaken, for Tullus not only received him with kindneſs, but by his gene-

rous interference, prevailed with his countrymen to give him the joint command of their forces. Theſe two Generals then entered the Roman territories, which they plundered with impunity: and Rome was ſo diſtraced with its own diſſentions, as not even to attempt the prevention of its inveſtiture.

The conſternation which this occaſioned is undeſcribable. Coriolanus, whom they had ſo lately baniſhed, had the means, and was about to execute the ſevereſt vengeance. They had no adequate force to avert the danger that threatened them, and the only hope of ſafety, was from the clemency of him that they had treaty with injuſtice and ingratitude. In this degraded ſituation, a deputation of the moſt venerable Senators, who had been intimates of Coriolanus, were ſent to implore his mercy. Deaf to their entreaties, the Prieſts, Augurs, and other officers of religion, were next ordered to deprecate his wrath. Their errand was alſo in vain; and as the laſt effort, to avert the deſtruction of their capital, the moſt venerable matrons, dreſſed in the deepeſt mourning, were diſpatched to the Volſcian camp. At the head

of theſe, was Vetruria the mother, and Volumnia the wife of Coriolanus. And no longer able to withſtand their entreaties, he granted a truce for one year; at the ſame time withdrawing the army from before the walls of Rome.

Though Tullus Aufidius was at firſt poſſeſſed of equal power, the ſuperior courage and ſkill of Coriolanus had given him, in fact, the ſole command of the Volſcians. Coriolanus, however, thought it neceſſary to juſtify his conduct to the ſenate of Corioli. He therefore met them in full aſſembly, and roſe to account for the truce which had been granted. But at this moment he was aſſaſſinated, as is generally ſuppoſed, at the inſtigation of Aufidius. The Volſcians did not puniſh this murder, probably from thinking his conduct very unjuſtifiable both to them and to Aufidius. In return for the ſervices he had before done them, he was, however, honored with a moſt magnificent funeral.

The character and fate of Coriolanus is well worthy of attention. Of heroic courage—Of great abilities—Of high rank—And a ſoul ſuperior to the love of riches,—the

greateſt things might juſtly be expected from Caius Marcius Coriolanus. But pride—haughtineſs—and an impetuous temper, defeated all theſe qualifications. Had he been truly great and wiſe, his unjuſt baniſhment would never have led him to join the enemies of Rome. And were it poſſible that a good man ſhould take the command of an army againſt his country; he ought then to diſcharge his duty to the ſtate that had adopted him. The only excuſe that can be made for this Roman is, that he was a ſlave to his paſſions. He was a ſlave to them when he inſulted the people and their Tribunes. He was a ſlave to them when he entered into the ſervice of the Volſcians. And, in ſhort, he in every thing wanted that fixed and ſteady principle, which is indiſpenſably neceſſary to real greatneſs. Nor can any permanent virtue exiſt, until we have brought our paſſions to ſubjection.

The trivial wars in which Rome was engaged, have no buſineſs in a hiſtory like this. I ſhall therefore paſs them over, and proceed to the next diſſention between the ſenate and people. The Patricians had arbitrarily di-

vided the conquered lands amongſt themſelves, which the inferior citizens very juſtly complained of. And they at length ſo far prevailed, as to obtain this decree from the Senate: That the next Conſuls ſhould name ten men of Conſular dignity, to make a diſtribution of the lands in queſtion. Notwithſtanding this, ſeveral Conſulates eſcaped, without the Decemviri being appointed. Which ſo exaſperated the people, that they ſummoned the Conſuls L. Æmilius and Vopiſcus Junius to appear before the aſſembled citizens, and give an account of their reaſons for not naming the Decemviri. Genucius, a Tribune of the people, was the cauſe of this meaſure. And being found dead the very morning of the trial, without any viſible cauſe for it; the ſuperſtitious people were perſuaded by the Patricians, that it was owing to the vengeance of the Gods, who were diſpleaſed at ſuch an attack upon the Conſular dignity. And for the preſent, no farther ſteps were taken as to the Decemviri.

Hitherto the Tribunes were elected by the city tribes only, and the votes were taken by the Curiæ, into which thoſe tribes alone

were divided. The influence of the Patricians was infinitely greater in the city than country; and conſequently they were more likely to have Tribunes favorable to their intereſts, than if the right of voting was in the tribes of all the Roman territories. Valero, one of the Tribunes, therefore propoſed, that the votes for that office ſhould thenceforth be taken from the tribes at large. And after many obſtinate ſtruggles, the Senators were at length compelled to ſubmit to this diminution of their power.

The people had not forgotten the Decemviri, and at times the queſtion was revived. But a new propoſition, made by C. Terentius, now employed the whole of their attention. The particular laws of Rome were in a great meaſure undefined. No written code exiſted, and conſequently, much was in the breaſt of the magiſtrates for the time being. Terentius therefore propoſed, that ten men ſhould be appointed to render the regulations of the ſtate fixed and permanent. And to have the laws publickly ſet up in the forum, that all might know the penalties of diſobedience. Virginius, a Tribune,

and the bulk of the citizens, gave their moſt ſtrenuous ſupport to ſo juſt a propoſition; but it was iniquitouſly oppoſed by the Patricians. All the great offices were filled from their order, except the Tribunes and Ædiles of the people: and a diſcretionary power ariſing from undefined laws, added to their influence. This conteſt roſe to an inconceivable height; during which, Appius Herdonius, a Sabine of great power and fortune, ſurpriſed and made himſelf maſter of the capitol.

Herdonius effected this with only 4000 men, whom he embarked by night upon the Tiber. And Rome was in the utmoſt conſternation, when the morning proved to them, that an enemy poſſeſſed their ſtrongeſt fortreſs. The people, notwithſtanding, refuſed to arm till the Terentian law was agreed to. In their preſent ſituation, the ſenate had no alternative. And having complied, the Conſuls inrolled an army, with which they ſoon retook the capitol, Herdonius loſing his life, together with all his followers.

This danger was no ſooner over, than the Senate reſcinded their late reſolution, alledg-

ing it was made through compulſion: and though a war now broke out with the Volſci and Sabines, Quinctius Cincinnatus, by means of the dictatorial power, raiſed the neceſſary levies. He had before diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the Conſular office, and he now received a triumph for his deciſive victories. After which he returned to hold his own plow, a ſmall farm being his only means of ſuſtenance.

When the next levies were wanted, the people had recourſe to their old remedy. But being for the preſent ſatisfied with five additional tribunes, they gave the neceſſary ſervice. They, however, ſoon reaſſumed the purſuit of the Terentian law. And the civil diſſentions of Rome at this time ran ſo high, that the Conſuls were ordered to priſon by the Tribunes; on which they were reſcued, and the Tribunes beaten by the Patricians, who happened to be preſent.

Things were in this ſtate, when Sicinius Dentatus, was raiſed to the tribuneſhip. His influence with the people was exceſſive, having by his valour obtained fourteen civic crowns, and three mural ones. He began

with getting a decree, that the peoples' tribunes might fine to a certain amount, as well as the Conſuls. And having thus ſtrengthened his office, he purſued the Terentian law with ſo much zeal, that the Senate no longer dared to withhold their compliance. But it was agreed, that three Patricians ſhould firſt travel into Greece, for the purpoſe of examining all their laws. And it was about the year 448, that this embaſſy took place.

Having executed their commiſſion, the people were aſſembled to elect ten men to frame thoſe laws, by which they were henceforth to be governed. On this occaſion the votes were taken by centuries, and Appius Claudius, with nine others, were inveſted with abſolute authority for one year. At the end of it, they ſubmitted ten tables of laws to the people; which being approved of, they were ordered to be engraven on pillars of braſs, and to be fixed up in the Forum. This regulation happened about the year 446; but it does not appear that any great change was made in the laws that had been hitherto in uſe.

Some additions being however thought ne-

ceſſary that would fill two new tables, another Decemviri was appointed for the enſuing year. This was, in fact, compoſed of Appius Claudius, and his creatures, as he had ſucceeded in obtaining the higheſt popularity. Each of theſe new officers, was attended by twelve Lictors; and as their power was abſolute, and all in ſubſervience to Appius, it was not difficult to apply it to the moſt ambitious purpoſes. Appius accordingly encouraged all whom he found diſpoſed to be his followers, letting them eſcape, though guilty of the greateſt crimes. Whilſt on the other hand, the moſt trivial offence in ſuch as were not his friends, was puniſhed with exorbitant ſeverity. This conduct in a ſhort time, procured theſe Decemvirs, all the moſt profligate and abandoned men of Rome; and by their means, they at length eſtabliſhed a moſt abominable and deſpotic tyranny.

A great number of the Senators retired from Rome, for the Decemvirs had far exceeded the time for which they were elected; and all power was taken from the Senate. A war, however, breaking out with the Volſci and Æqui, levies became neceſſary. And

Appius thought it would be prudent to have the ſanction of the Senators who continued at Rome. Moſt of them were his own creatures, and he carried all he propoſed. But C. Claudius, the uncle of Appius, and L. Valerius, the grandſon of Poplicola, had the courage and virtue to arraign the conduct of theſe uſurpers. It was indeed in vain, the aſſembly being devoted to their will. And the moſt virtuous citizens ſeeing no chance of liberty being reſtored, fled from a government they could not endure. On which their property was confiſcated, and applied to the uſe of theſe tyrants.

When the Decemvirs were appointed, all other magiſtrates were ſuſpended; and the people having no tribunes to ſtir them to action, quietly ſubmitted to be enrolled againſt the enemy. Ten legions were thereupon raiſed, two of which remained at Rome under the command of Appius, and Sp. Oppius, one of his colleagues; whilſt the reſt were led into the field by the other Decemviri. And during that ſervice, Sicinius Dentatus, was treacherouſly taken off by the tyrants, who were fearful of his influence. But a very un-

expected event was now to lead to the puniſhment of this, and all their offences.

L. Virginius, a gallant plebeian ſoldier, had a beautiful daughter, whoſe name was Virginia. Whilſt the father was ſerving in one of the abſent legions, ſhe had the misfortune to be ſeen by Appius. He, in vain, made every overture, and finding all common modes of debauchery impracticable, he reſolved to compel her to ſubmiſſion. For this purpoſe, a creature of his claimed her as the daughter of his female ſlave, alledging that the wife of Virginius had gratified her huſband's love of children, by purchaſing Virginia when a child, and then impoſing her for her own offspring. She was therefore ſeized and brought before Appius, as had been preconcerted; who, upon hearing ſome falſe witneſſes that were ready, decreed her as the property of him who claimed her. Juſt at this moment, her lover Icilius, to whom ſhe had been promiſed, ruſhed into the court. He ſeized the lovely object of his heart, at the ſame time declaring no power ſhould part them; and the people ſhewing every diſpoſition to aid him, Appius did not think proper to enforce

his orders. He ſeemed now to think that ſome miſtake might be made, and wiſhed to wait till her father Virginius ſhould come from the camp. He therefore took ſufficient bail for the appearance of the maid the next day; at the ſame time ordering, that Virginius ſhould be ſent for to give his teſtimony as to the reality of the birth of Virginia.

Icilius, Virginius, and his daughter, accordingly appeared before the tribunal of Appius. The moſt ſatisfactory evidence was then produced, that ſhe was indeed the offſpring of Virginius. But Appius having now an ample force at hand, gave orders that his former decree ſhould be carried into execution. The unhappy father was well acquainted with his real purpoſe. He therefore plunged a knife into her heart, at the ſame time exclaiming, that thus alone he could preſerve a daughter's honour. The aſtoniſhed Appius, with thoſe around him, were for a ſhort time incapable of action. Virginius, therefore, drew the bloody weapon from the boſom of Virginia, ſwearing by her precious blood, that he devoted Appius to the infernal Gods; and haſtening from the croud, he

mounted a ſwift horſe, on whom he ſoon reached his brother Legionaries. He then related the dreadful tale, with the knife yet in his hand; and being much beloved, the revolt became inſtant and univerſal. The eight Legions then marched to Rome, where they poſſeſſed themſelves of the Aventine hill, moſt ſolemnly declaring, they would never lay down their arms till freedom was reſtored.

In Rome, Icilius, with the dead body of Virginia, had produced a ſimilar revolution. The two legions ſtationed there, had likewiſe revolted, and now united with the others. They then elected twenty military tribunes, out of whom two were choſen to command the whole. And the Senate being aſſembled, the old magiſtracy was fully reinſtated.

The eight Decemvirs, who commanded in the camp, eſcaped by flight. But Appius Claudius, and Sp. Oppius were ſeized and impriſoned. They, however, were either diſpatched, or put themſelves to death before a public trial could be ordered. And thus ended the ſhort and wicked uſurpation of theſe ten abominable tyrants.

Two very popular men, named L. Valerius and M. Horatius Barbatus, were the firſt Conſuls after the abolition of the Decemvirs. And they became ſtill greater favourites with the people, by the laws which they procured. A vote of the majority of the tribes was now made, to bind every Roman; whereas it before affected only thoſe who were not Senators. All magiſtrates were alſo from henceforth to be elected by tribes, inſtead of Centuries or Curiæ; which you may eaſily perceive was highly raiſing the democracy. And all decrees of the Senate were in future to be lodged in the Temple of Ceres; it having been, before this, a practice to ſuppreſs ſuch as were extorted from them.

On account of theſe laws, the Senate refuſed a triumph to the Conſuls, though they well deſerved it for their ſucceſs againſt the Æqui and Volſci. But the people gave an immediate inſtance of the power they had acquired; for, aſſembling and voting by tribes, a triumph was not only decreed but enforced, without the Senators daring to oppoſe it.

Three or four years ſubſequent to this, the people propoſed and carried an abolition of a

law, which forbade the intermarriage of Patricians and Plebeians. They alſo attempted to make the Conſulate, which had hitherto been confined to the Patrician order, eligible for every citizen. This was highly diſagreeable to the Senate; but the people were too ſtrong to be openly oppoſed. A plan was therefore contrived to ſatisfy their expectations, without ſuffering a Plebeian to riſe to conſular dignity. The Patricians conſented, that the people at their option, might elect annually, military tribunes, inſtead of Conſuls: and whenever they did ſo, any citizen was eligible. As the power of the Conſuls was on ſuch occaſions to be veſted in the military tribunes, this was in fact what they wanted. And this diſtinction ſeems rather to have been founded in the pride of thoſe who had been already Conſuls, than in any real advantage to the rights of the Patricians.

This change in the Roman government, if it may be called one, happened about the year 437. But the Tribunes of the people, and the chief Plebeians, were for ſome years diſappointed in the object that led to this alteration. They thought that ſome of them-

ſelves would be made military tribunes. When on the contrary, the people conſtantly choſe them out of the Patrician order. And finding that to be the caſe, there were ſometimes military tribunes, and ſometimes conſuls, according to the caprice of the people, or their leaders.

About the year 435, a new and uncommon office was inſtituted at Rome. Two men called Cenſors, whoſe poſt was for five years, had a right to inflict penalties, and to degrade ſuch as they deemed fooliſh or vicious, at their diſcretion. This ſoon became an appointment of conſequence, and for fear of its abuſe, it was ſhortened to 18 months duration. Not many years ſubſequent to the Cenſors, two additional Quæſtors were made. Their duty was to take an account of the ſpoils made in their wars; as alſo to ſupply the camps with every thing neceſſary. And as both theſe Cenſors and Quæſtors were choſen from Patricians or Plebeians, at the option of the people, it was ſtill an addition to the power of the democracy.

At this time the lower order of citizens ſuffered greatly by their military ſervice, as the

wiſe regulations of Servius Tullius, on that head, had gone into diſuſe. The Senate therefore enacted, about the year 399, that every foot ſoldier ſhould henceforth be paid from the public treaſury whilſt he was inrolled. In about two years more, the horſe were alſo put on the ſame regulation. And theſe acts of the Senate were ſo acceptable, that the people and their tribunes for ſome time abſtained from diſturbing the public tranquility.

The military tribunes were at firſt but three in number. They had now been increaſed to ſix: and about the year 396, one Plebeian was at length nominated by the people. The year following, there was however but one Patrician elected; and a great mortality breaking out in the Roman camp, it was aſcribed to the people, thus deſtroying all diſtinctions of rank and birth. The Sybilline Oracles were then conſulted, and the Duumviri thereupon declared, that they muſt feaſt Apollo, Latona, Diana, Hercules, Mercury, and Neptune, for eight days together. This was accordingly done by taking down their ſtatues, and laying them along on

couches, at tables which had been prepared. And the mortality ceaſing, freſh credit was given to the Sybilline predictions.

For two years the people elected none but Patricians to the military tribuneſhip. But at the end of that period, having forgot their ſuperſtitious fears, all the ſix were Plebeians. The Roman affairs, however, at this time required a dictator; and Furius Camillus was raiſed to that important office.

Camillus firſt vanquiſhed thoſe enemies who had taken the field. He then led his victorious forces againſt the city of Veii, which had for ten years defied the utmoſt efforts of Rome. But by mining, Camillus now obtained a ſecret entrance. And having made himſelf maſter of the place, thoſe who eſcaped the ſword, were ſold into ſlavery. The money ariſing from it, he, however, gave to the public treaſury, inſtead of diſtributing it amongſt his forces. And though he was voted a triumph, he thereby moſt highly offended the ſoldiery. Inſomuch, that he ſoon after preferred a voluntary baniſhment, rather than ſtand a trial with which he was threatened. He was however free from all real

guilt; and we ſhall ſoon ſee him recalled with redoubled honors, by his ungrateful countrymen.

The Delphic Oracle had been conſulted as to the taking of Veii; and by its directions the Lake Alba was drained as a neceſſary preliminary. For this advice, and the conſequent ſucceſs, a gold vaſe was now voted to Apollo at Delphos. But all Rome could not afford enough of that metal, till the women voluntarily gave up their ornaments. And then the vaſe only weighed eight talents. In return, the Senate decreed that funeral orations might thenceforth be pronounced on illuſtrious women; and they were alſo permitted to go in chariots to be ſpectators of the public games. The ſmall ſtrides made towards luxury, are amply illuſtrated by this ſcarcity of gold; and it was not till after the deſtruction of Carthage, and Corinth, that Rome became completely venal and corrupt.

It was not long after the voluntary exile of Camillus, when deputies arrived from the city of Cluſium. They acquainted the Romans, that Brennus, the King of a Gauliſh nation, had paſſed the Alps, and invaded

their city; at the ſame time imploring their interference. Three of the Fabii family, which had greatly diſtinguiſhed itſelf at Rome, were accordingly ſent to the camp of Brennus. They repreſented to him, that he could have no right to Cluſium, a city of Hetruria, at the ſame time ſoliciting him to withdraw his forces. But Brennus replied, that all things belonged to the ſtrongeſt; adding that Rome itſelf could claim no better title to moſt of its territories. The Fabii then paſſed into Cluſium, and though in the character of ambaſſadors, they aſſiſted in a ſally from that city, ſlaying a principal Gauliſh officer. Brennus therefore demanded, that the Fabii ſhould be ſurrendered to him by Rome, to which they had returned. But inſtead of complying, the Romans elected them military tribunes in the preſence of the Gaul's ambaſſadors. This ſo irritated Brennus, that he inſtantly marched his whole army to chaſtiſe the Romans. It conſiſted of 70,000 men, whilſt Rome had only 40,000 to oppoſe it. And the latter was totally defeated in an engagement not very diſtant from Rome.

The moſt dreadful conſternation was the

conſequence. All thoughts of defending the city was abandoned, and they contented themſelves with throwing a very ſtrong garriſon into the Capitol. All the reſt of the inhabitants then retired, except eighty of the old Patricians. Theſe, either unable or unwilling to retreat, reſolved to meet their fate with firmneſs. They therefore dreſſed themſelves in the habits peculiar to the moſt exalted ſtations which they had reſpectively filled. And ſeating themſelves in the Forum they patiently waited for the arrival of the Gauls. As they remained motionleſs, Brennus and his ſoldiers at firſt ſight took them for the ſtatues of the Roman deities. But one of the Gauls touching the beard of M. Papirius received a ſtroke from his cane; in conſequence of which he and the reſt of theſe aged ſenators were immediately diſpatched. Rome was then plundered, and reduced to aſhes: Which event took place 123 years after the eſtabliſhment of the conſular dignity.

Ardea was the place to which Camillus had retired; and the Gauls now diſpatched ſome of their forces to attack that city. In this

danger Camillus was called to the command of the Ardean youth; who not only defeated, but cut the troops that came againſt them entirely to pieces. On hearing this great numbers of the Roman citizens ſolicited Camillus to put himſelf at the head of their deſperate affairs. This he made no other objection to than the illegality of his doing ſo, unleſs the military tribune, who remained in the Capitol, ſhould call him to the dictatorſhip. On which Pontius Cominius found means to paſs into the Capitol, returning with a full appointment. And then Camillus took immediate ſteps to reſtore the Roman power.

The way Cominius made this dangerous expedition was by getting down the Tiber by night. He then landed at the foot of the Tarpeian rock, clambering up a moſt difficult path till he gained the wall that ſurrounded the Capitol. But though he eſcaped, the Gauls perceived that ſome one paſſed that way: And Brennus reſolved to attempt a ſurpriſe by the path he now diſcovered. The Romans were ſo ſecure as to that quarter as to deem a guard unneceſſary. From this neglect the two foremoſt Gauls who were

ſent on this duty reached the foot of the wall before the leaſt alarm had been given. But a flock of geeſe, ſacred to Juno, who were kept in that place, then began to cackle: And Manlius, a gallant Roman, happening to be awake ran to ſee the occaſion of it. By this time the two firſt Gauls had gained the top of the rampart. Manlius however with the firſt ſtroke of his ſword diſabled one, and immediately tumbled the other down the precipice. The alarm then became general, and the forces of Brennus, having no longer any chance of ſucceſs, abandoned this enterprize.

Though there were ſeveral dogs in the fortreſs none had given the alarm. One of thoſe animals was therefore afterwards annually impaled, whilſt the golden image of a gooſe was carried in proceſſion. For the preſent Manlius was rewarded with ſuch things as were in the power of the garriſon: And a houſe was afterwards built for him cloſe to the Capitol.

But this eſcape ſeemed only temporary. The want of proviſions became ſo great that death or a ſurrender was the ſole alterna-

tive. A treaty was accordingly opened, which was on the very point of being concluded, when Camillus advanced to their relief. By his judicious and gallant conduct Brennus in his turn experienced the moſt fatal overthrow. And it is ſaid not one of all his army ever regained their native country.

By this happy change the Romans not only regained the wealth of which Rome was plundered, but they alſo got a conſiderable booty from the Gauls. This was immediately applied to the rebuilding of the city, under the inſpection of Camillus. The dictatorial power was given him for one year, though it never before had been granted for more than half that period. And having reinſtated every thing, he was ever afterwards with juſtice conſidered as the ſecond founder of Rome.

On the expiration of his dictatorſhip military tribunes were again appointed. But freſh dangers obliged them to recall Camillus to abſolute power. Rome had long been the terror of all her neighbours. The Æqui, Volſci, Hernici, with all the Latin and He-

trurian cities, therefore conceived a favorable opportunity now offered to humble if not deſtroy the Roman people. And a moſt formidable combination took place amongſt theſe enemies to Rome.

But the wiſdom and valour of Camillus were more than equal to all the dangers which threatened them; and in a very ſhort period he totally broke this confederacy: After which he for the third time entered Rome in triumph. During this campaign he took very great ſpoils in conſequence of his victories. Inſomuch that he returned the Roman ladies an equal quantity of gold with that they had furniſhed for Apollo. And he himſelf dedicated three vaſes of the ſame metal to the goddeſs Juno.

Manlius who had ſaved the Capitol was now at the head of a powerful party. He concealed the moſt improper views under the pretence of procuring the abolition of debts and the Agrarian law. But his ambitious deſigns breaking out he was tried in comitia. And the votes being taken by centuries he was condemned for attempting the ſovereignty; in conſequence of which he was thrown

from that very Tarpeian rock which he had ſo ſucceſsfully defended. And the houſe which had been built by the public, as a reward for his ſervices, was then razed to the ground.

Though the people had been gaining ſtrength ever ſince the expulſion of the Tarquins they were far from ſatisfied. And not contented with what they had got by the election of military tribunes, they contended that the Conſuls ſhould be reſtored; and that one of them muſt always be from the Plebeian order. They alſo inſiſted that no Roman citizen ſhould poſſeſs more than 500 acres of land. And they ſought a decree that whatever ſums debtors had paid for intereſt ſhould be deemed a liquidation of the principal. As the people could by their act bind every member of the Roman ſtate, the Patricians had no open means of preventing theſe new regulations. But they ſecretly bribed eight of the ten tribunes of the people, who as conſtantly as any of theſe laws were propoſed, cried Veto. Now, by way of giving greater power to the lower order of citizens, any one of their tribunes had a right

to ſtop all proceedings by crying Veto: And thus the people were defeated by the perfidy of their own officers. But Licinius Stolo and L. Sextius, the other two tribunes, were reſolved to be revenged on the Patricians. They accordingly cried Veto whenever the people were called together to elect new magiſtrates. And by this means Rome continued for five years without any military tribunes or conſuls; all power being in fact for that time in the tribunes and ædiles of the people.

Some preſſing dangers obliged Stolo and Sextius, for a ſhort time to withhold their veto, and military tribunes were once more elected. To gratify the people an alteration alſo took place, as to the keepers of the Sybilline oracles. They were now increaſed to ten in number, one half of whom were to be plebeians. Whereas there had been but two before employed; and they were always Patricians. This did not however alter the purſuits of Stolo and Sextius. They became more violent than ever, and Camillus was raiſed to the dictatorſhip. But ſo far were they from ſubmitting to his juriſdic-

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tion, that they ordered Camillus to be ſeized. This was not indeed accompliſhed, as the Patricians about him were able to repulſe thoſe who attempted it. But the ſenate perceiving all oppoſition for the preſent in vain, acceded to the three laws. And the military tribunes being aboliſhed about the year 362, the conſular government was fully reinſtated.

According to the new regulation one of the conſuls muſt be a plebeian; and L. Sextius was the perſon elected. But the ſenate having recovered from their panic, refuſed to confirm him, which was a neceſſary part of the ceremony. A civil war was the moſt probable conſequence of this freſh contention; to avert which, Camillus was referred to by both parties. The expedient he hit on proved acceptable to all. This was the creation of a new officer called Prætor, to whom all civil matters were to belong; he was always to be from the Patrician order. Whilſt the conſuls who were henceforth to act in a military capacity only, were to continue as had been fixed by the laws of Stolo and Sextius.

This interpoſition of Camillus produced an amity between all ranks of Romans, to which they had long been ſtrangers. The great games were therefore celebrated on this joyful occaſion; and two new officers called Curule Ædiles, preſided at them. They were diſtinguiſhed by ivory chairs in which they ſat; and their chief duty was afterwards to regulate all feſtivals and amuſements; and to ſee that no novelties were introduced in matters of religion. At firſt this appointment was confined to Patricians; but in a very ſhort time it alſo was opened to the plebeians.

In memory of a tranſaction that ſo happily prevented a domeſtic war, Camillus cauſed a temple of Concord to be erected, in the view of the principal public aſſemblies; not long after which he was carried off by a plague that afflicted Rome. He lived to his eightieth year or upwards; having gained more victories, and performed more eſſential ſervices to his country, than perhaps any who followed or preceded him. Beſides his valour, wiſdom, and true patriotiſm, he poſſeſſed a benevolent and

forgiving heart. His paſſions were his ſervants, not his maſters. And take him altogether, I know not one Roman ſuperior to the great Camillus.

Scenic ſhews were about this time introduced amongſt the Romans. They were of the nature of pantomimes, and ſoon after ſomewhat like plays were performed. But the ſtage never flouriſhed at Rome, as it did among the Greeks; for players were highly reſpected by the latter people; whereas the Romans deemed them infamous: And ſo it continued till Cæſar gave them a more favourable reception.

About the time of Camillus's death, a very ſtrange adventure is recorded by the Roman hiſtorians. They ſay the earth opened in the Forum; on which the Augurs being conſulted, pronounced that it would never cloſe, till that which conſtituted the Roman ſtrength ſhould be thrown into it. Various things were tried in vain, till at length M. Curtius a Patrician youth conceived a Roman horſeman was intended by this prediction. He therefore reſolved to remove this calamity by devoting himſelf

to deſtruction. And equipping himſelf as a Roman knight he leaped his horſe into the chaſm; which, if this account is to be credited, immediately cloſed upon him.

Corruption had already entered into the Roman elections; for a law was now made to prevent ſolicitations for office; owing to bribes being notoriouſly given. For the firſt inſtance a plebeian was about this time raiſed to the dictatorſhip. The uſual mode when ſuch a power was neceſſary, was for the Senate to order the Conſuls to name one to that office. And the Patrician Conſul being abſent, the plebeian one appointed C. Martius Rutilius, who was of his own order. This ſo highly irritated the Senate, that they in their turn oppoſed the levies. But the people, proud of ſeeing one of their body raiſed to ſuch a rank, crouded to enroll themſelves. Rutilius then marched againſt the enemy with a powerful army, proving fully ſucceſsful. In return he was voted a triumph by the people; who inforced it, though the Senate abſolutely refuſed its confirmation.

When the time for electing new magi-

ſtrates came, the Patricians had another ſtroke at the plebeian dictator. They alledged he could not hold that election, becauſe none but a Patrician could go through the neceſſary Auguries. The people were too tenacious of all religious ceremonies to get over this; and the dictator being obliged to reſign, a Patrician was appointed to preſide. The Patricians had alſo at this time ſufficient intereſt to get both Conſuls choſen from their order. This being contrary to the late law, occaſioned freſh diſputes. But after a few years, the neceſſity of one being a plebeian was again eſtabliſhed.

The Gauls had ſeveral times made unſucceſsful attempts to revenge the death of Brennus. But a freſh and formidable army approaching; whilſt a Grecian fleet hovered at the ſame time upon their coaſts, a new dictator was appointed. This was Camillus, the ſon of him, whom you have ſeen ſo famous. And imitating his father, he beat the Gauls, beſides preventing the threatened invaſion. It was ſoon after this, that Carthage renewed and enlarged the treaty which began in the year 508. The principal heads

of this latter agreement were, that they ſhould live in friendſhip with each other; and that the Romans ſhould carry on no traffic, nor make any new ſettlement, beyond the fair promontory of Africa. The Romans were likewiſe reſtrained, from all trade with Sardinia, and every part of Africa, except Carthage itſelf. Rome was alſo open to the Carthaginians, but it was agreed that any Latin cities taken by the Carthaginians, after being plundered ſhould be delivered up to Rome, as alſo all Priſoners of ſuch ſtates, as were in alliance with the Romans. The ſpirit of the two nations is contained in this ſmall outline. For Rome had no care as to her commerce; whilſt that was the great drift of the Carthaginian negociation.

The intereſt of money was at this time lowered from one, to half per cent. and in order to adjuſt freſh diſputes which had ariſen between debtors and creditors, it was agreed that the ſums then owing ſhould be paid by four equal inſtallments. The one down, and the reſt at the end of the three next years reſpectively.

The wars which were perpetually carried

on by Rome, with one or other of its neighbours, are unworthy our attention; but there was one that now broke out of more importance. The Latines had been for a conſiderable time the allies of Rome. They had acquired the ſame knowledge of arms: And to all appearance were equally numerous and powerful. It ſhould indeed ſeem that they thought themſelves ſuperior; for they meditated no leſs than the ſubjection of the Romans. When hoſtilities commenced, aware of the conteſt, Rome choſe two of her greateſt generals to the Conſulate. Theſe were Manlius Torquatus, and Decius Mus. And the Latines having taken poſt near Mount Veſuvius, the Romans encamped in the ſame quarter.

The Conſul Manlius, in this ſituation, gave out an order, that no Roman ſhould fight till he was commanded to do ſo, under the penalty of death. This was to prevent an injudicious action being brought on. But Manlius was ſo unfortunate, as to have his own ſon the firſt tranſgreſſor. He had behaved with great courage, and ſlain his adverſary. Manlius, therefore, embraced him

as a father; but as his commander, ordered him for immediate execution. And this dreadful example ſecured the obedience, and perhaps the ſucceſs of his army.

Whilſt the Latines and Romans were thus poſted cloſe to each other, both Conſuls declared, that they dreamed the victory would belong to which ever ſide loſt a General. They therefore pledged themſelves to each other, that which ever wing firſt gave way, the Conſul leading it ſhould inſtantly devote himſelf. In the action that enſued, this proved to be Decius's. He then ſent for the Pontifex Maximus, that he might fulfil all neceſſary forms. The firſt was putting off his armour, clothing himſelf in his ſenatorial robe, and ſtanding on a javelin. He next covered his head, his hand touching his chin, and repeated after the Pontifex Maximus as follows:—"O Janus,—Jupiter,—Mars,—Romulus,—Bellona,—and ye Lares and Novenſiles. O all ye heroes who dwell in heaven, and all ye gods who rule over us and our enemies, eſpecially ye gods of hell; I honor you, I invoke you, I humbly entreat you, to proſper the arms of the Romans, and to

transfer all fear and terror from them to our enemies; and I do for the ſafety of the Roman people, and their legions, devote myſelf, and with myſelf the army and auxiliaries of the enemy, to the infernal gods and the goddeſs of the earth."—Having ſaid this he mounted his horſe, and rode full ſpeed amongſt the enemy. He was ſoon deſtroyed, but the wing he had commanded were ſo animated by this example, as to become irreſiſtible. And the Latines were defeated with the loſs of three fourths of their army.

The Campanians, who had before been ſubjected to Rome, now openly declared for the Latines; who by their means made freſh head againſt Rome. But both were entirely ſubdued, and all their lands divided amongſt the Romans. A body of 1600 Campanian Knights were, however, an exception to this general deprivation. For having proved faithful to Rome, they not only retained their poſſeſſions, but received penſions for their ſervices. And they had all the rights of Roman citizens, except the privilege of voting.

In the Conſulate of Manlius and Decius Mus, Alexander, King of Epirus, and bro-

ther to Olympias, the mother of Alexander the Great, viſited Italy. He came in aid of the Tarentines, who had a war with the Brutians, a neighbouring ſtate. But he took that opportunity of forming an alliance with Rome, whoſe fame was now extending beyond the narrow limits of Italy.

The Latines made ſome inſignificant ſtruggles to ſhake off the yoke which had been impoſed on them. At the time that Alexander conquered Darius, they were however finally ſubdued. Many of their cities were razed. Their gallies were taken and deſtroyed. The beaks of theſe veſſels being of braſs, ſome of them were placed in the Forum, in the ſpot from which public ſpeakers harangued the people; and which, from this very circumſtance, was called the Roſtrum. About this period a material change took place in the manner of enacting laws. Whatever new thing was propoſed, muſt originate in the Senate; and if it was approved of in that houſe, the votes of the people were to paſs on it by centuries, taken in comitia. An infringement of the law made by Camillus alſo happened much about the ſame time;

for a Plebeian was elected to the Prætorſhip. This is all that I think neceſſary as to Rome, and there is nothing more as to Italy, that for the preſent is worth our obſervation.

FIFTH LETTER.

IN this Æra two very important changes took place, as to the greateſt powers of the world. The Greeks, and particularly the Athenians, were ſo brave and virtuous when Darius Hyſtaſpes mounted the Perſian throne, that they were able to bid defiance to the utmoſt exertions of him and his ſucceſſor. But they ſoon copied the vices of the Aſiatics; and at length became ſubſervient to Philip and his ſon Alexander. At that period the Macedonians were leſs luxurious, and infinitely more warlike than the Greeks. But the moſt effeminate of the forces led by Alexander, were far ſuperior to the beſt of thoſe which ſerved in the armies of Darius Codomanus. And the conſequence was, the total ſubverſion of the Medo-Perſian Empire.

Whilſt ſome ſtates had thus ſunk beneath

their own depravities, and the Macedonian, or Grecian Empire, had gained its ſummit, other nations were riſing into conſequence. Carthage, Syracuſe, and Rome, were becoming formidable in their reſpective quarters. The deſcendants of Gomer were alſo filling all the northern and weſtern parts of Europe. And fiſhing and hunting being, as yet, their only means of life, even thoſe extenſive regions were become too narrow to contain them. Thence the excurſions of the Gauls, who paſſed the Alps in ſearch of new ſettlements. And thus every epocha diſplays the increaſe of population, and the riſe of new and diſtant nations.

Navigation and commerce now begins to wear a ſettled aſpect. Carthage took the lead in both, and we find her anxiouſly ſecuring a pre-eminence in theſe important branches. Thence her commercial leagues with Rome; the firſt we hear of in the world. The Greeks, and alſo the maritime parts of the Perſian Empire, likewiſe poſſeſſed extenſive navies. And their various quarrels were frequently decided on the water. But this period is ſtill more remarkable for the progreſs

of the finer arts. And in them the Grecian ſtates, both of Europe and Aſia, and particularly Athens, moſt peculiarly excelled.

Architecture, painting, and ſtatuary, flouriſhed through all the Grecian cities. Muſic was alſo highly improved; and poetry was greatly cultivated. Pindar excelled in lyrick compoſition. Æſchyles, Sophocles, and Eurypides, were eminent for tragedy. And Hermippus, and particularly Ariſtophanes, were diſtinguiſhed by their low and comic humour.

Early in the Æra I now treat of, Parmenides invented rhetoric. The greateſt Grecian orators ſoon after made their appearance in ſucceſſion. And Demoſthenes, the moſt celebrated of them all, has not been excelled even to this day. The greateſt heroes, and moſt diſtinguiſhed patriots amongſt the Greeks, are likewiſe found between the reigns of Cyrus and Darius Codomanus. But in the very ſame ſpace, we behold the Grecian nations paſs their ſummit of virtue and improvement, and haſten to decay.

Hypocrates, another Greek, brought phyſic to ſo great perfection, as to be yet in high

eſtimation. Aſtronomy was improved on by Anaximander, the diſciple of Thales; and Cleoſtratus, Harpalus, and Meton, added to that knowlegde. In the year 444, Herodotus, a native of Halycarnaſſus in Aſia-Minor, flouriſhed as a proſe hiſtorian. And though Sanchoniathon, Beroſus, and Manetho, wrote before him, they are ſo little in repute, that he is ſtiled the Father of Hiſtory. Thucydides and Xenophon are the next celebrated hiſtoric writers. And from thenceforth, till ſome centuries after the birth of Chriſt, we have a regular account of the moſt material tranſactions of mankind.

Philoſophic enquiry was greatly encreaſed in this laſt period. Pythagoras, who was born in the Iſland of Samos, was cotemporary with Zoroaſter. He travelled firſt into Egypt, where he remained till Cambyſes took him priſoner, and brought him to Babylon. He afterwards viſited different countries of Greece, and at length ſettled in Crotona, a city of Italy. There he taught the ſciences, and was one of the firſt who made muſic ſyſtematic. He is ſuppoſed to have had ſome notion of the ſun being the center of our ſyſtem.

But the doctrines for which he is moſt remarkable, were, that the ſoul exiſted before the world. That after a man died, his ſpirit paſſed through ſuch animals as ſuited his diſpoſitions, till it again reanimated another human body. In general, he ſaid, the ſoul forgot its former ſtate, though he alledged, that he himſelf well knew, what bodies he had thus occupied. He therefore abſtained from all food that ever had life, and taught his followers to do ſo alſo. It is ſaid, he could converſe with animals, and that he had alſo the gift of predicting events. But I can ſcarcely believe that he aſſerted, as ſome ſay, that he had a golden thigh, and was the ſon of Apollo. His powers were however greatly envied, and he loſt his life in a ſedition which they occaſioned. After which his diſciples were called the ſect of the Italics.

Socrates far excelled Pythagoras, in the juſtice of his notions. He taught that there were three principles in nature. God—Matter—and Ideas. God, he ſaid, was the univerſal intellect—Matter, the ſubject of generation and corruption—and Ideas, the incorporeal ſubſtance of the Deity. The ſoul he

affirmed to be immortal, and that it would be happy or miſerable according to its conduct here. And he therefore applied all philoſophy to practice, alledging, that it was incumbent on man to be active in every duty.

Whilſt Socrates flouriſhed at Athens, the ſect called Sophiſts aroſe. The art taught by them, was to uſe ſuch arguments as ſhould make the wrong ſide of any queſtion appear to be right. But Socrates had ſuch diſcriminating powers, as to ſhow them conſtantly in error. And he evinced the ill conſequences of ſuch inſtructions ſo fully, as to bring their ſchools into the greateſt odium.

Of all Socrates's ſcholars, Plato was the moſt celebrated. He was deſcended from the great Codrus, King of Athens; but was infinitely more eſteemed for his knowledge and abilities, than for his rank. He began with exerciſing his talents in poetry, but dropped it on his acquaintance with Socrates. Beſides the inſtructions of that able maſter, he viſited Egypt and other countries, ſpending a conſiderable time in Italy amongſt the followers of Pythagoras. But at length he ſet up a ſchool at Athens, in a place

called Ecademus or Academus, from whence his diſciples got the name of Academicks.

Zeno, an Elean, had before this taught Logick, but Plato greatly improved upon it. He was alſo very conſpicuous in geometry and mathematicks, and was the firſt who introduced a grammatical ſtudy of languages. He lived to a great age, and was applied to for inſtruction by different countries. But he never took any public office, contenting himſelf with the enjoyment of his private patrimony.

Ariſtotle, a deſcendant of Æſculapius, who was born at Stagyra, in Thrace, ſtudied under Plato, and became his greateſt favourite. Being eminent for his knowledge, Philip, King of Macedon, put Alexander under the tuition of Ariſtotle. But when Alexander paſſed into Aſia, his maſter ſet up his ſchool at Athens. Ecademus was then in the poſſeſſion of Xenocrates, another ſcholar of Plato. And therefore Ariſtotle got a place called the Lyceum, where ſoldiers had been uſually diſciplined. It was his cuſtom, as the Lyceum was capacious, to walk about inſtructing his pupils who attended him. And

they were from this circumſtance called the ſect of Peripateticks.

Beſides adding to logick, he threw great light on phyſicks, ethicks, and metaphyſicks. He alſo collected the firſt library of any conſequence that had yet been ſeen in the world. It conſiſted of between 4 and 500 volumes; and he left it to his ſcholar and ſucceſſor, Theophraſtus.

The great ſuperiority of Greece, in this æra, muſt appear evident. All thoſe great men I have been now calling to your obſervation, were of Grecian extraction. And Zoroaſter and Hyſtaſpes, who were Perſians, are the only men, beſides, amongſt the heathens, diſtinguiſhed at this time for their wiſdom and knowledge. The world was likewiſe improved as to its notions of futurity. Any juſt ideas of another life, chiefly began amongſt the heathens, by means of Zoroaſter. And it is worthy of obſervation, that he ſpent ſome time in Chaldea. Now by the captivity of the Jews, the Moſaic diſpenſation muſt have been well known in that country. Daniel could not have been very long dead, and he had filled, when living, ſome very high

poſts in that kingdom. Zoroaſter's notions of God, and future rewards and puniſhments, in moſt fundamental parts, do not far differ from the account in the bible. It ſhould therefore ſeem, that the all wonderful hand of God had given the Gentile world a freſh light, by means of the captivity of his choſen people. And I ſhall here conclude my comments on this part of Univerſal Hiſtory.

MUSEUM BRITANNICUM

END OF SECOND VOLUME.